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ABSTRACT

This publication examines efforts to educate for peace and disarmament. A proposal by the Network to Educate for World Security for the establishment of a United Nations sponsored disarmament fund devoted to worldwide peace and security education is presented in Section One. Section Two contains papers that suggest how the traditional way to transmit culture (education) and the basic tool for forming and reforming adult opinion (communication) can transform the universal desire for peace into habitual practices of peace. The dual fear of arms and disarming in a world rife with complexities and conflict is explored. The third section focuses on classrooms from kindergarten through the post graduate level and discusses what is and can be done toward peace and security education in the schools. Issues and attitudes that divide integrating international and security topics into the curriculum are also included. Section Four expands the concept of education to include all ways adults form opinions such as radio, TV, community activities, and cultural events. In Section Five, groups who are actually engaged in teaching and communicating about peace describe their programs. Some examples include the Institute of International Education, the United Nations University, Global Perspectives in Education, and the World Federalists. An administrative model for the proposed United Nations sponsored disarmament fund is presented. The model ties what can be done with how it can be carried out in a worldwide, visible, and flexible way. (Author/RM)

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THE ELEMENTS OF A NETWORK TO EDUCATE FOR WORLD SECURITY

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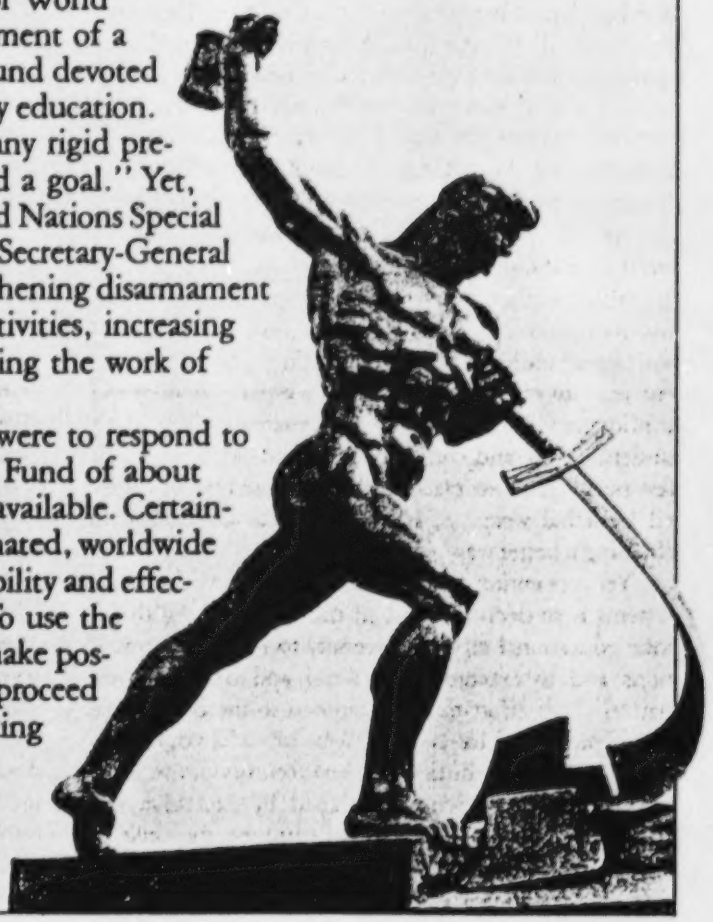
Prospectus:
an introduction

Inspired by Secretary-General Kurt Waldheim's suggestion that 0.1% of the annual arms budget be devoted to positive disarmament efforts, Network to Educate for World Security is proposing establishment of a U.N. sponsored disarmament fund devoted to worldwide peace and security education. Mr. Waldheim did not offer "any rigid prescription" "only a purpose and a goal." Yet, in his speech to the 1978 United Nations Special Session on Disarmament, the Secretary-General did specifically mention strengthening disarmament education and information activities, increasing research capacities and furthering the work of international organizations.

If the nations of the world were to respond to Mr. Waldheim's suggestion, a Fund of about $500 million a year would be available. Certainly, using the Fund in a coordinated, worldwide fashion would increase the visibility and effectiveness of the expenditures. To use the money for education would make possible a global society ready to proceed with reducing arms and replacing them with more rational and productive ways to conduct world affairs.



THE ELEMENTS

Underlying Network's educational focus are several assumptions. First of all, while vast numbers of the world's people share an implicit desire for peace and security, most are insufficiently prepared to achieve it. A second assumption is that there is a correlation between public attitudes and national policies in all but the most oppressive regimes. Third, public support for high military spending is frequently grounded in misperception and absence of knowledge —misperceptions concerning the real threats to security and the real limitations of military-based security systems; absence of knowledge about the dangers inherent in arms races and about alternative ways of addressing real problems more effectively.

It follows then, that there is little likelihood of effective reduction in arms manufacture, sale and use until widespread understanding of the ultimate futility of present security measures is backed by equally widespread confidence and competence in alternative policies. This understanding and competence cannot be limited to a few people in a few places. All people are now threatened by lethal weapons. Each person has an interest in choosing a better way.

Yet conventional reliance on military-based security systems is so deeply rooted in modern thinking that a total educational effort is necessary to expose its limitations and to explore, understand and develop alternatives. That effort must be tailored to the concerns of those who would listen. It must be brought not only to those who will be adults in the next century but to those whose lives are presently burdened by expensive and flawed security policies. It must combine the skills of educators and communicators in a creative, yet practical, effort to help all people learn how to secure peace.

Through the Network to Educate for World Security, the foundations may be laid for a realistic, secure and creative peace.

The key to the program is ordered flexibility. Its central administration will provide unity and global visibility to individual efforts. Yet, both the subject matter and the methods are to be tailored to individual interests and capacities. Present knowledge about the causes of war, the effect of arms races and alternative ways to provide international security forms a solid intellectual basis for the program.

The papers that follow suggest how the traditional way to transmit culture (education) and the basic tool for forming and reforming adult opinion (communication) can transform the universal desire for peace into habitual practices of peace. Section II explores the present dilemma—the dual fear of arms and disarming—in a world rife with complexities and conflict.

Section III focuses on classrooms from kindergarten through post-graduate. In it there are examples of present programs that deal directly with those issues and attitudes that divide people as well as those that bind us together. The section also contains suggestions for integrating international and security topics into many subject areas that traditionally have not been viewed as relevant to building a peaceful world. While an interdisciplinary approach is clearly espoused in this section, it contains no attempt or intent to advocate one analysis or one solution as better than others. In a world as complex and varied as ours, ways to assure survival and security must also be various.

THE ELEMENTS

Section IV expands the concept of education to include all ways adults form opinions, such as radio, TV, community activities and cultural events. This section also addresses the variety of problems particular groups of people might have in relation to peace and security issues. It suggests ways of matching effective learning tools with the needs and experience of various people so that comprehension of security issues will be enhanced.

Section V might be called "Present State of the Art." The groups quoted in it are only some of the many who are actually engaged in teaching and communicating. While most of them now center on peace and security issues, some are included because their techniques or subject area can readily be adapted to such issues.

The Administration model (Section VI) ties *what* can be done with *how* it can be carried on in a worldwide, visible and flexible way. In the model, decision-making is divided between boards at two levels; a global board whose members are appointed by participating governments; 8 regional boards made up of experts in education and communication, nominated by participating states and appointed by the global board. The actual programs would be carried out by local groups receiving grants from the Fund according to general guidelines which are laid out by the global board and adapted by regional boards to local situations.

The Appendix contains bits of history, a glossary, short articles, charts and details of some of the examples alluded to in the other sections.

The Elements bring together the experience, advice and insights of people throughout the world. May they be viewed and used as a catalyst for a united effort toward an equitable peace in a secure world.

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Disarming the Dilemma:
the meaning of security

Popular support for increased armaments is not a measure of popular belief in the effectiveness of arms. People sense that the arms race spells human annihilation but they don't know what else can be done.

Fear that there are no alternatives blocks thinking about the ultimate peril of waging modern war. Those who do try to think the unthinkable find theories for containing war implausible. Escalation, like the arms race, would have a momentum of its own—measured in hours, not months or years. Fancy scenarios would be the first victim of battle. To know such things increases fear and the pervading sense of insecurity and impotence.

For many, the sense of helplessness is pushed into corners of the mind. Few can think the unthinkable for long and continue to meet the ever-present demands of daily life. Even those whose job it is to support and maintain the facade of defense frequently put aside their own questions about the purposes for which arms might be used. But the desire for true peace does not fade entirely, although means to achieve it in this complex and dangerous world remain obscure.

Meanwhile, disarmament efforts are largely stillborn. The public fears dismantling armories; their leaders hesitate to advocate alternatives lest those leaders themselves be replaced by ones who sound more stalwart.

Working alternatives

But human ingenuity does not end in munitions factories. Studies and experience point to alternatives that have worked well in the past—ways in which understanding, patience, respect and explicit training can enable societies to address difficult and divisive problems in positive and non-coercive ways.

The European Economic Community, for example, continually deliberates over issues as volatile as those which previously led to violence. Apparently, knowledge that the Community provides an ongoing mechanism for considering numerous issues diminishes the compulsion to win or the sting of losing any particular one of them. War between those nine nations, so much a part of their history, no longer seems likely. Yet most of those same nations take part in a world arms race against perceived outside threats, similar to those that caused conflicts among them before.

Granted, one set of experiences in avoiding war or going to war may not be exactly applicable to another set of circumstances, no matter how seemingly similar. But it is curious that so many accept present superpower postures as necessary, though regrettable, when both the failure of the pre-World War I arms race to deter war and the success of the European Economic Community to address problems non-violently are at hand.

The illusion of peace in a world bristling with arms links the two conditions without proving the assumption that arms preserve peace. Not only is it myopic to label the present world as peaceful but it is close to blindness not to see the potential conflict inherent in acquiring and possessing modern arms.

Armed insecurity

Certainly, the era since World War II can hardly be considered peaceful and secure, despite the accumulation of history's most awesome arms. True, the major powers have avoided war with each other up to now. But civil wars, proxy wars, invasions and incursions, bombings, snipings and occupations pervade the world and weapons are being used as they are intended to be—to kill, maim and destroy. Isn't it a fallacy to expect weapons to perserve life—not take it? And what role has arming played previously in bringing on war?

Arms manufacture does not help the economy of industrialized nations.

Leaving aside the argument about which nation, policy or event triggered World War I, the major contenders were made careless by the perceptions of invulnerability behind burgeoning modern arsenals. The gory trenches that followed were not part of the grandiose war strategies stuffed in filing cabinets.

In present times the fabrication and purchase of weapons increases the possibility of conflict within and among nations, rich and poor alike. As will be argued below, arms manufacture does not help the economy of industrialized nations and it is becoming increasingly apparent that developing nations, desiring modern weapons as the recognized symbol of strength—or feeling compelled to match the armed might of their neighbors—are facing cruel choices.

It was bad enough when the choice for using scarce import credits was between arms and food. With expensive energy added to the shopping list, arms expenditures make the plight of the poor in those nations even more desperate. As hope of better days dim, the option of violence is more likely to be employed by either leaders or the masses.

Balancing history

Even where tensions are dormant, the drama of war often overshadows the blandness of tedious negotiation. Few history texts record the dates of wars that did not happen. Consequently, successful resolution of conflict has an undeservedly low profile. For example, the vital Rio de la Plata basin between Argentina and Brazil was a source of serious friction between those two countries—as it had been for their previous colonizers, Spain and Portugal. Yet negotiation, not border wars, resolved the dispute by establishing independent Uruguay in the basin.

Few of us can tick off the terms of the Treaty of Ghent in 1814. Yet it is ultimately more important than the War of 1812 between the U.S. and Great Britain, for it led to disarming the contentious border between the U.S. and Canada. It certainly is worth note that, in the 160 odd years since that border was disarmed, serious disputes between Canada and the U.S. have been resolved through formal negotiating channels.

Nor should it be forgotten that diplomatic and negotiating skills were a major factor in keeping the recent detention of diplomatic hostages in Colombia from exploding into violence. That the Colombian outcome was overshadowed by events in Iran, London and Afghanistan does not diminish its importance.

Bias toward violence

This does not imply that those who record events in the media or textbooks prefer war. Violence is superficially exciting and captures attention. It is possible that those educators and communicators who recognize the growing problems associated with policies based on arms are unaware of those aspects of their own thought and training that accept arms conflict as an unfortunate but inevitable fact. That could explain why few of the traditional vehicles for teaching and relaying information have responded to the universal danger modern weapons pose.

Up until now most cultures, even comparatively peaceful ones, gave insufficient scrutiny to attitudes and assumptions unconsciously supporting military-based security systems. For instance, pointing to past revolutions as pivotal in effecting change to more open and more equitable societies inadvertently conveys the impression that revolution is the most effective means of achieving necessary change. Yet 20th Century history records decolonization and social changes by decision and election as well as by guns.

But unrealistic views of the efficacy of military threats and war must not be replaced by exaggerated pictures of a world at peace. Arms are not the sole cause for conflict; nor will abandoning them bring peace. For the present, at least, disputes and conflicts seem inevitable. So, probably, will the threat of aggression. Yet even those who despair of societies ever developing mature habits for resolving conflict without the everpresent threat of violence are coming to see the limited utility of armed threats.

Flaws in deterrence

For example, the flaws in the deterrent effect of nuclear weapons are becoming more obvious. Nuclear strategies may temporarily deter a significantly weaker opponent or a stronger one aware that an exchange

Human ingenuity
does not end
in munitions factories.

would include sustaining unacceptable damage. It has been recognized for years that the explosion of a few hundred warheads would make either the Soviet Union or the U.S. inoperable (if not uninhabitable).

> ...deployment of small, tactical, short-range weapons increases the likelihood of nuclear exchanges in case of war since they are obviously meant to be used and there is no fail-safe strategy to block escalation.

Armed impotence

The mania for overkill has little to do with deterrence. In fact, it has engendered the opposite effect by making each side suspicious of the motives behind the other's obvious overarmament. Thus restraint weakens as stockpiles grow and each superpower suspects the other of aiming for a first-strike capability. Worse still, deployment of small, tactical, short range weapons increases the likelihood of nuclear exchanges in case of war since they are obviously meant to be used and there is no fail-safe strategy to block escalation.

Armed impotence is spreading as mid-range sophisticated weaponry blurs the lines between strategic and tactical forces. Deterrent theory may assume that strategic forces never be used but tactical forces may well be. Yet the determination to address problems and conflicts in ways that diminish the temptation to resort to war is not yet the keystone of policies.

The deterrent effects of massive armament fail in other ways. Civil revolutionaries and guerrillas face them down. And to one so irrational as to believe that national or personal survival is of no consequence compared to the symbolic, heroic gesture, deterrence has no meaning at all. Repeated terrorist behavior indicates that such madmen are in our midst.

To a degree this has always been true. But in times past, the failure of weapons to provide security could be compensated for afterwards by the people and institutions that survived. The lethality of modern weapons insures no such thing.

Even if there were some utility in using weapons in more limited situations, there is no evidence that either the quantity or sophistication of the weapons is relevant to success. Revolutionaries taking on superior forces know their own arms are not sufficient for victory. If, however, the revolutionary goals and ideas are shared by large numbers of the unarmed population, the seemingly superior power may fail to break the resistance.

Nor need the apparently weaker power employ violence. Guerrilla attacks make headlines but passive resistance and non-violent civil disobedience are powerful tools.

Even the most authoritarian of regimes needs some cooperation from its subjects in order to function. Recently, in Nicaragua, the Somoza regime's days were numbered when the people went on strike. Official violence proved powerless to change that.

In addition, history points to the possibility of an unarmed militia. The Norwegian civil resistance to Hitler's occupation revealed that a civilian population deprived of its traditional political leadership can organize itself through almost impenetrable networks to stymie compliance with a conqueror. On the other hand, cases of violent resistance elsewhere presented an easier

target for repression, undermined the unified civil will and complicated the restructuring of the social fabric once the crisis passed.

A society that develops among its own people patterns for handling internal conflict through discussion, negotiation and other suitable non-violent techniques is better able to organize itself during a crisis of national or international proportions. Such a society has the internal strength to convert itself into a militia without arms. Violence, then, only becomes one of many options. Non-violent civil defense has an additional value that no arms-dependent means can have—the value of not in itself posing a threat to those who rely on it.

The determination to address problems and conflicts in ways that diminish the temptation to resort to war is not yet the keystone of policies.

Economic factors

Ironically, one argument within industrial nations that fuels the arms race and its concomitant dangers has little direct relationship with military security. That is the assumption that making guns is good for the local and national economy. Sophisticated studies are beginning to show the fallacy of that argument.

Since military production is capital-intensive rather than labor-intensive, military budgets produce fewer, not more, jobs than the same money expended on specific civilian enterprises. In various U.S. studies, public money spent on housing, education or revenue sharing would produce more employment, as would a tax cut. And, as a recent Swedish study indicates, while defense department contracts seem to guarantee profits, they subvert the flexibility of management, product design and labor skills necessary for industries to compete effectively in civilian markets if military contracts are not forthcoming.

Furthermore, military production fuels inflation, diverts investment from the civilian sector, and diminishes the productivity growth rate. A nation that encourages a false sense of economic well-being through the manufacture of weapons saps its own economic root system. To hold out military spending as a way to buy a nation's way out of recession may have political appeal but it is not economically sound. Neither is using arms sales as a way to balance payments in international trade. Furthermore, arms sold are arms uncontrolled.

Greater attention needs to be taken, however, of the economic implications of a decrease in arms expenditures. The hope that such a decrease would improve conditions in the civilian sector in either industrialized or developing countries could become a cruel illusion if great care is not taken to plan for an orderly and well-tailored reallocation of resources—including technology and skills.

Any security system must take into account that conflicts will arise regularly even among people of good will.

Real meaning of security

There are numerous productive ways to build world security, many of which are functioning well at the present time. Development loan banks, international courts, treaties for regulating outer space, U.N. agencies such as the World Health Organization are among them. They form a crucial component of future security systems.

But any security system must take into account that conflicts will arise regularly even among people of good will. Furthermore, people involved in conflict or crisis are frequently tempted toward violence, even those who, in calmer times, habitually approach differences in a rational fashion. And it must be recognized that there are people and leaders who are violent by inclination, not by accident or circumstance.

Neither conflict nor violence can be wished away. But sophistication in handling conflict can be increased and public appreciation of that tedious process would, in itself, decrease the emotional pressures to resort to more bellicose postures. History reinforces the personal experience of each of us that divisive issues can be handled civilly.

To raise those instances to the prominence they deserve; to increase understanding of the complex issues; to train the young in thinking broadly rather than shooting sharply are the prerequisites for reducing the risks ahead. This is not to change radically any of the world's cultures, but rather to make explicit and habitual those mechanisms that lift societies out of fear and brutishness into the communal diversity that is their real strength and security.

A world learning to address conflict realistically and determined to deal with it without fearing war will be a world in which the word 'security' has meaning.

History reinforces the personal experience of each of us that divisive issues can be handled civilly.

Literature and Laboratory:

from primary to post-graduate

The best civil defense any nation can devise is to educate its people in accordance with two significant modern developments. The first is negative: more and more of the weapons coming out of laboratories and factories must never be used. The second is positive: there is greater understanding of the causes of human conflict so that it is becoming possible to anticipate conflict and seek resolution in advance of crisis.

People who have been schooled in traditions that exaggerate the potential of military means to resolve human quandaries need to know how weapons have become the enemy of security, not its guarantor. And people need to engage in questioning the assumptions enmeshed in the arms race.

Is deterrence, for example, likely to work? What do people do when threatened? Do they capitulate or become more aggressive? Do policy makers act differently than do individuals when their nations are threatened?

Does it really matter if one side has more weapons, fewer weapons or the same number as its potential enemy? Is military deterrence the only or the safest way to provide security? How does the availability of security options, other than military, affect national behavior? Or, perhaps, do nations rely on military security because it seems easier?

Certainly, in the present climate, it takes less patience and sophistication to threaten to wipe out our adversaries than to negotiate our differences; but, if all people were trained from the outset not to expect easy answers to tough problems and to be creative in selecting ways to handle them, the military aspect of security would decline in importance.

Security is basic

That will not happen automatically. People have a basic need to feel secure. They are unlikely to abandon even flawed security systems until they see the alternatives as feasible. They need to be shown that there are safe ways to assure survival in spite of crisis. They need to become familiar with the academic specialties for enhancing survival.

Up to now, educating people for a secure peace has not been done coherently. Educational advances in many areas have not been visibly linked to peace-making or security. As a result, increased global understanding seems nice but not necessary. Insights into psychological motivation have been viewed as more personal than international. Negotiations appear dull, the World Court distant. And cooperation is seldom associated with winning.

But these things are among the advances that do provide a firm basis for a secure peace. It is time they are so labeled—and so learned. That's what a network to educate for world security will do.

Peace and security education itself is a young field, but its insights are not so much new as reordered. It has from the outset attempted to counterbalance those aspects of education that are tipped toward accepting wars and military defense systems as regrettably necessary, inevitable, or even useful. It is a difficult task to rectify security notions embedded in history and tradition—no matter how outmoded they have become. But it is an essential task now that the technology of war has changed the basic nature of war.

Peace and security educators, of course, do not act on the assumption that war is inevitable. If they did, their clear understanding of the cataclysm modern war threatens would make them apathetic, not active. Furthermore, they, themselves, have at hand sufficient evidence of the human capacity to devise alternatives in the midst of conflict to present realistic options to students. Peace and security specialists may appreciate the symbol of putting flowers in the rifle barrel, but their goal is to turn swords into plowshares—to feed people rather than kill them.

Much of the present material used by effective peace educators—and the values which form them—aim at helping people strike a balance between attitudes, habits and thought patterns that foster violence on the one hand and wishful thinking that would convert the world's people into one big happy family on the other. Certainly, it would be nice if global awareness led to global sharing; if cooperative games led to a world community; if tolerance led to justice—but that's not realistic. Global understanding, cooperative attitudes and a habit of aiming at tolerance will develop in those societies educated to reflect, evaluate and seek options for reducing causes for dispute and minimizing the potential for violence when conflict occurs.

> It would be nice if global awareness automatically led to global sharing... but that's not realistic.

Winning together

A look at several examples of realistic teaching for a secure peace and at the underlying theories will illustrate the point. Cooperation and competition are not mutually exclusive—as economics clearly shows. Competitive businesses depend on mutually respected monetary and financial rules and obligations. A prospectus must be truthful, a debt repaid on agreed-upon terms; a country's money backed by its full faith and credit. Adherence to such rules allows for competition within the system although there is dispute concerning how much competition is in the individual and general self-interest.

An example raised by Garrett Hardin in his article "Tragedy of the Commons" shows how difficult it is to ascertain how much competition is beneficial if resources, for instance, are limited. In the Hardin example peasants, each grazing one cow on a common pasture,

produced sufficient food for themselves and their dependents plus a meager surplus for sale. When one peasant increased his spendable surplus by grazing a second cow, others followed his example. Soon, the common was over-grazed and all the cows sickened—and, obviously, all the peasants became destitute.

Contemporary manifestations of that phenomenon proliferate—the fourth gas station on the corner; the thirteenth fast-food store; over-grazing in the Sahel. Certainly, neither the fictional peasant nor the African herders anticipated the result. Would they have cooperated in search of ways to increase production without destroying the pasturage if they had foreseen the disaster of not doing so?

Do those with modern techniques tend to act differently? The experience of professors using versions of the well-known simulation game, The Prisoner's Dilemma, are not encouraging. The game awards more points for cooperating than it does for competition. And the participants know that. Yet, for those schooled to give competition a higher value than cooperation, the game players usually act by habit in a manner contrary to their self-interest. As one professor, who uses that simulation in an upper level business administration course, remarked, "Unfortunately, although the pay-off matrix is designed to encourage cooperation, the groups inevitably compete. I believe we must encourage and instill inter and intra group cooperation at as early an age as possible." (J. Ronald Collins, University of Prince Edward Island, Canada.)

That's why peace educators advocate early childhood training in cooperation—in games, tasks and lessons themselves. There is wide support for that idea among child specialists. It is clear that children exposed to the humiliation of defeat before they have developed self-confidence either withdraw from the group entirely or develop a destructive form of competitiveness, drawing satisfaction more from defeating others than from winning itself.

Obviously, competition that feeds on the defeat of others is antithetical to world order. That abstract point, however, could hardly be made with five year olds. But it is possible, and important, to begin building on cooperative skills in the younger years that are reinforced throughout a student's education. Then both cooperation and competition will be perceived as practical options.

Opportunities to do so are various. For example, educators are aware that slow learners often can progress more quickly if children closer to their own age act as tutors. The student-tutor need not be the brightest child. And a student, slow in one area, might be able to tutor in another. The class' overall progress becomes the interest of each and all. This offers as much or more satisfaction than contests that only one can win.

Teaching can easily become preaching. And preaching is frequently poor teaching.

"Now I understand"

However, making conscious connections between this kind of experience and a wider social or world context is difficult. Teaching can easily become preaching. And preaching is frequently poor teaching.

Theories about how people learn indicate that it is as critical to gauge accurately a student's level of moral understanding as it is his or her rational competence. It is not surprising that most children move from an infant's awareness of pleasure/pain through a what's-in-it-for-me phase to various ways to seek outside approval.

What is surprising, though, is the theory that if a teacher relies too heavily on abstract principles to convey a lesson to students who are still in a conformity, approval-seeking stage, the lesson is not only immediately meaningless but, in addition, may retard student growth toward making principled judgments

later on. That is an interesting example of the best being the enemy of the good.

Object lessons often work far better than lecturing—at all stages of schooling. For example, Hakan Wall's second grade students learned more sharply the pain of unjust distribution than many an advanced student of ethics. Mr. Wall's class participated equally in making "imaginary buns." All of them waited excitedly for the "buns" to finish "baking" in the teacher's desk drawer. But, when it came time to eat, Mr. Wall gave more "buns" to some, leaving others out entirely. Those who were left out were rightfully angry at the unfair distribution.

> It is easy for students to love neighbors as themselves if those neighbors are like themselves.

In that context, to talk about rich countries and poor countries is meaningful even to seven-year-olds. Those who got more can see that, while having more is pleasurable, it certainly isn't fair. And all can see that, outside the classroom, equal work is often not rewarded equally.

One key to successful peace and security education is to deliberately link the familiar and the distant in the primary grades and, at the high school and college level, use an interdisciplinary approach to more closely pattern the real world. In the early grades this has the effect of predisposing children toward tolerance rather than prejudice. Children frequently fear what is unknown and label different ways of doing things as peculiar, even as bad. That is an early form of security-seeking. If, however, fears of unknown cultures, races or religions are replaced with curiosity about why people behave and believe differently, fear-based prejudice is less likely to develop.

New meaning in old materials

There are many opportunities at hand for developing global awareness: stories, legends, songs, art, dance, history and geography—all of them conventional components of elementary education. Yet, converting global awareness to global understanding is not automatic. Teachers themselves need easy access to related background materials in agricultural methods, the availability of resources, effects of mechanization and urbanization, as well as explanations of the effects of values, historical experience and religious practices on behavior.

Teacher training courses can provide some of this but the curricula for training teachers is already quite extensive. Furthermore, the present security crisis is much too immediate to wait for teachers, yet to be trained, to implement alternative security education. Teachers now in the classroom will influence what is taught for years to come. For them, specially designed or supplementary materials are needed. So are seminars and workshops that focus on ways to infuse peace and security concepts into conventional material.

Teachers will want to be sure that the ideas associated with alternative security education are academically sound. The burden of that proof lies with those who prepare the materials and conduct the training sessions. Their job is, in fact, consciousness raising. And that can be done by a fresh look at familiar materials.

Articles relating the same event may agree on little else than names and dates if their authors are from different regions. Even those who strive to be objective may disagree about which facts are significant. Certainly African and European historians do not have the same perspective on 19th century African events. Mingling the two perspectives brings recorded history closer to what really happened.

Time affects perspectives also. The nationalist rhetoric in many texts, written at the outset of this century, jars the modern ear. Fortunately, current history books of many countries are not nearly as propagandistic as previous ones. But present day texts still feature wars and, by implication, inflate the importance of war in the world's history.

Once a teacher sees the standard text with a new eye, it is a relatively easy matter for him or her to redress the imbalance by raising questions in class. Did the aims of the war and its outcome match? Have similar aims been achieved in other times and places without violence? Such questions not only make history lessons more valid, they make them more interesting—for students of all ages.

Teachers who are aware of the gaps in present materials can help students identify such gaps. The tools need be no more complex than the morning paper and the classroom encyclopedia, almanac or map. Unemployment is at 7.8% says one story. Fifty thousand new jobs were created, says another. Which figure is bigger? The new Soviet Trans-Siberian Railway is a major project. Why? Look at the map. Mexico is concerned about dam projects on the Colorado River. Look at the map again. Two countries (almost any two) are disputing the effects of the 200 mile coastal rights on fishing practices. That item alone is enough geography for at least a week. Such exercises introduce students to the kind of problems that can and do lead to crisis.

The newspaper will also report on what the president, prime minister or other government official says he or she will do. That, too, can become a source of instruction. What would members of the class do? And can one student prove to the others that the decision is in line with the facts? Even if the consensus is "We don't know what to do in this case", interest in the larger world—its problems and possibilities—is an antidote to apathy and cynicism.

The potpourri of peace

Such teaching is realistic. It encourages students to rely on their own judgment when forming opinions. What's more, it prepares students to be part of the real world—to be concerned about matters far afield from their immediate routines.

Later on, students accustomed to the complexities of world affairs are less likely to neglect those interests and habits as they get caught up in pursuing daily occupations. As scientists they are more likely to question the effects of their efforts—for good or ill. As professionals (lawyers, teachers, doctors, government officials), consideration of the common good will be natural. As workers in any field, they will feel connected to the global community of which they are a real part. As citizens, their mature attitudes toward world affairs will influence security policy.

To reinforce and augment the realistic attitudes developed in the earlier grades, it is important to get more information about alternative security systems (and the military ones they must replace) to advanced students *not* specializing in peace and security studies.

> The present security crisis is much too immediate to wait for teachers, yet to be trained, to implement alternative security education.

Most who go to colleges or universities will never seek out courses focused on security. And the courses they do take are unlikely to make explicit reference to security matters.

Not that courses in psychology, physics, literature, philosophy, education, ethics, ecology, finance (to name a few) are unrelated to peace. On the contrary, effective alternative security systems draw heavily on them. Yet, the way courses are presently structured, the interdisciplinary nature of security systems is obvious in specialized peace studies courses, but not in the general curriculum. This omission does not reflect the real world.

Course content does change, though, once teachers and professors see the importance of doing so. A review of the effect of environmental awareness indicates that expanding traditional courses to include new insights can occur quickly. A little over a decade ago, few science courses touched on the effects of pollution. Now, there

are not only whole departments of ecology but environmental concepts must be part of any up-to-date course in business or public administration. And there are journalists that specialize in the subject, along with economists, urban planners and those dealing with technologies from fabrics to building materials.

It's not that pollution was new any more than alternative security systems are new. What was new was awareness of pollution's widespread implications and of the need to break old thought patterns in order to design the creative measures necessary to check its deleterious effects. Similarly, inadequate thought patterns about security can be broken once the public becomes familiar with a broader view of the meaning of and means to realistic security. That is an interdisciplinary task.

Aren't all these things being done somewhere already?

Specialists in peace and security lead the way in this task, not as propagandists, but as pragmatists. They are taking an academically sound advocacy role in organizing faculty conferences to examine the interdisciplinary nature of both the present security impasse and the options for resolving it.

Material for academic discussion is available from research institutes around the world. Those institutes for study are multiplying. Such institutes don't merely count weapons or analyze present strategies. They are investigating the impact of present systems and the potential for alternative ones in economics, politics, development and international law, among others.

Critical questions

Listing what can be done to forward peace and security education in the schools raises pertinent questions. Aren't all these things being done somewhere already? If they are, why aren't their effects more widespread? Is there a direct relationship between inadequate financing and the lack of influence of peace and security education? If so, is lack of money the culprit or is there a flaw in the rationale and design of present peace education programs?

Those questions must be contended with if a fund to further peace and security education is to make a significant impact on the way the world's people address world problems.

Yes, most of the suggestions contained in these pages are being done—sometimes in small, privately run schools, but also in large, publicly financed institutions. Whether or not they are effective is hard to measure.

If the students at a cooperative-type school are more likely to respect the needs of others, is that a result of the school program? Or did a large number of the students come from families that fostered cooperation and selected the schools on that basis? If the latter case is so, increasing the number of voluntary schools might not increase the total number of students whose parents would support this kind of instruction.

Of course, parental selection is frequently not a factor in the schools students attend. However, parental attitudes do come to bear on curriculum in informal ways, as some teachers in Norway discovered. When they introduced disarmament education materials without acquainting parents with the new materials in advance, the parents objected and forced the materials to be withdrawn. Whether the parents would have accepted the new concepts if they had been consulted about them rather than confronted with them is difficult to judge.

In addition, schools in some regions are far more likely to be internationally or cross-culturally oriented than others. Frequently, that is the case in regions comprised of many small countries, among which travel is easy and contact common—although, even there, old animosities or prejudices can be a limiting factor. On the other hand, world affairs and related studies may seem

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to lack relevance in the heartland of large countries or in countries where travel is uncommon for whatever reason.

Certainly, large cosmopolitan cities have more schools fostering international understanding. There, students come from varied backgrounds. For curricula to reflect that is natural. This is far less likely to occur, though, if the cultural differences are aligned with religious, economic or social distinctions. When those from one race are poor and another rich, proximity often increases tension rather than understanding.

It is easy for students to love neighbors as themselves if those neighbors are like themselves. It is in schools where the differences cause real trouble that increased emphasis on conflict resolution skills, cooperation games and cross-cultural materials could have immediate—and maybe even measurable—effect. In fact, such schools are the perfect testing ground for the principles peace and security educators hold. A strong case can be built for allocating funds for increased peace-related education to schools in which the possibilities of conflict are high.

Before plunging into a worldwide effort for peace and security education, its advocates must be particularly careful to demonstrate that both they and their proposals are practical. Unfortunately, peace educators have not had that reputation up till now. Certainly, their goals are idealistic. But so are the principles which most people hold. Yet the greatest human accomplishments occur when people proceed to realize their ideals.

A secure peace is, without a doubt, an ideal which must be realized. Learning how is the next step. It is up to those who have looked for and evaluated alternative security systems to reach out to others, to seek common ground and new insights and to demonstrate that peaceful alternatives are practical, obtainable and in the self-interest of everyone.

That's why the Network to Educate for World Security is designed to be interdisciplinary; to be for people of all ages; to be worldwide. The fund to support peace and security education becomes, then, the vehicle for making the achievement of peace everybody's project.

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Adult Education:
listening with a local ear

The challenge of a comprehensive peace and security education program is to stretch the boundaries of education to include people who are normally far beyond its reach. This entails adapting subject matter to the present concerns of a wide variety of people and searching for the channels of communication to which people naturally turn.

Education for adults is becoming a necessity in a host of areas. Most of today's adults were trained for yesterday's world. To cope with present reality, people modernize their minds with scraps and tidbits of information, hoping them to be true enough to be serviceable.

Unfortunately, much of what is offered to the general public as fact is incomplete. The media selects what they deem as instantly interesting; politicians trim to what pollsters claim is the prevailing public mood; advertisers and interest groups tailor their presentations to persuade others to buy this product or that point of view.

It is up to the individual to assess the accuracy of the presentation and to sense if more information is needed as a solid base for forming opinion. Yet, few people, preoccupied with daily cares, have the time or the resources to ferret out balancing material. This is particularly true when the subject is as complex as war strategy, or the issues involve regions far removed from immediate experience.

Announcement of the move by the U.S. to a so-called "limited war" policy is a case in point. The stories were couched in the sterile language of nuclear strategists—accuracy, throwweight, vulnerability, triads, mutual assured deterrence and first strike capability. Absent was enumeration of the *minimum* number of deliverable warheads required to either deter or destroy a potential enemy; the probable global disaster that would follow even a minimal exchange; the inherent weakness of mechanisms to prevent an instant escalation of a limited war. How is the public to judge the rationality of such policies, much less evaluate the degree of security they provide?

Growing Influence of Public Opinion

Public opinion about security issues and world affairs mattered less in the days before technology integrated the globe. But now, local problems frequently elicit responses from political and economic leaders everywhere. And the general public has instant access to much of what was previously confined to diplomatic pouches and coded cablegrams.

Neither a controlled press nor rural isolation is likely to stem the growing effect of mass opinion. Radio waves and satellite transmissions leap national boundaries. Transistor radios plus tape cassettes are putting an end to isolation. However, it is still unclear whether this is an improvement or a set-up for disaster.

Unfortunately, schools have not been consciously preparing people to be conversant with the elements of foreign affairs. Courses in history, economics, business and so forth have reflected an insularity that no longer exists. So adults are left with forming opinions from headlines or flash bulletins of present crises without sufficient analytical tools or historic context.

When news from Yemen, Zimbabwe or Afghanistan suddenly floods the screen, viewers who would have difficulty locating the place on the map have little more to draw on than the opinion of their favorite commentator or politician. Often superpowers are blamed for what is essentially a local conflict; old opinions from previous crises are dusted off; glorious moments in history—particularly famous victories or stalwart heroes—are remembered and similar remedies seem necessary. The result sometimes is as incongruous as recommending flood-prevention measures when the crisis is really a drought.

Creating classrooms

Getting accurate, adequate and balanced information to the public is clearly essential. All should have access to accurate information, keyed to the interests and fears of each group of people, just as it is to the grade level and interests of young students. But that's not enough. Catching the attention of those millions necessarily preoccupied with providing daily sustenance is equally important.

Those who would undertake the task of acquainting adults with a more complete view of present conditions and the possibility for enhanced security must first listen with a local ear. The subjects, then, will have to be brought into the everyday patterns of adult life.

This is certainly possible. It's done all the time. For instance, politicans know the value of posters, slogans, symbols, speeches and meetings wherever crowds of people naturally gather. Advertisers use similar techniques. Yet, their messages would be meaningless if they failed to identify the interests of those they hope to influence. The same care must be taken by peace and security educators. The information they have to convey is central to everyone's well-being. The essential task is to say so in ways each person can understand.

Classrooms usually come to mind when the word 'education' is used; media comes to mind when discussing education for adults. But the inquiring human mind ignores set categories. Any experience is potentially a learning experience—especially if opportunities are made to reflect on its meaning.

Combining enjoyment with reflection, for example, does this. Plays, puppet shows and stories that clarify reality with wit and wisdom are both popular and powerful everywhere—and adaptable to current problems.

One way to assure that the material is relevant to the audience is to involve local people. The West Side Players, a group of young inner-city blacks in Louisville, Kentucky, who write and perform sociodramas, illustrate the point. Their sociodramas attempt to present, in an objective fashion, the many facets of a community problem.

The West Side Players found that by exposing both sides of the issue in play format, the audience receives a total perspective of the issues involved. Since the issues are usually emotional, the topics are handled in a humorous fashion. That allows the spectators' defensive

mechanisms to be disarmed, and increases the instructional capability of the production.

The West Side Players have dealt with racial discrimination, the drug problem, juvenile delinquency, and the modern day frustrations of dealing with government bureaucracy. For the players and their audiences such topics are volatile and timely. Occasionally, the dramatic presentations are followed by organized discussions among the members of the audience so that they, too, can voice past frustrations and misunderstanding in surroundings conducive to broader, more rational evaluation of the issues.

Many aspects of peace and security are adaptable to dramatic presentation which draws in the audience. This is particularly valuable when tensions are great. For example, in the spring of 1980, citizens in a small town in New York spent a whole day participating in a Middle Eastern cultural festival featuring arts, music, dance, crafts, food, clothes and storytelling. For many of those who participated, the spirit of identity that was created may last far longer than the memory of present crisis between the U.S. and many of those same countries.

Lessons without lectures

That example of a community engaged in understanding another culture can be an ongoing process. No overt lessons need be drawn nor complex lessons in international relations be given. But it does require a conscious effort to design community activities that increase a sense of world community and, at the same time, make local events more interesting.

Planting an international peace garden in the town square or common is an example. Many sectors of a town can become involved in planning and caring for it. It need not involve anything more complicated than school children researching the flowers and foods of a different country to see what can be adapted to the local climate; merchants arranging to get seeds or bulbs if they are not at hand; local groups planning a festival to include other aspects of the culture for the enjoyment of the whole community. The garden will remain when the festivities are over. And each year a new country or region may be added.

> The link between building a cooperating community and piecing together a peaceful word is a real one.

Incorporating the sister-city idea with a project such as a peace garden would extend the connections in a tangible way, especially if an organized pen-pal program were included. Travel and student exchange fits naturally into such a process and has proven to work well in various places, especially if a particular group or church assumes continuous coordination.

Frequently connections are easier to make between areas with little history of conflict. Yet methods such as these can be deliberately undertaken between traditionally hostile areas if both feel particularly compelled to overcome hostilities. This occurred between the people of France and Germany after World War II when leaders and citizens alike realized that war between them must cease and, to assure this, long-term prejudices and resentments blotted out. Hundreds of groups and towns, citizens and leaders played a part in sister-city activities with genuinely remarkable effectiveness.

Communities of all sizes can do similar things with a minimum of resources. Groups already in existence can gather the information and coordinate the projects. Much of the information is often at hand in libraries and school books. Small expenditures would augment those resources. Radios, TV and newspapers can report the event and extend its impact by increasing the amount of background coverage of the regions in which local people have become interested.

But a sense of community with people of different regions is fragile. A school project to list the foreign

sources of products sold in local stores seems a good way to increase recognition of how economically interdependent the globe has become. Yet that project could turn sour quickly if the goods produced locally are being undersold by those from another region. In such instances, the project can be reversed and export of local products studied, rather than imports. That may not stifle all cries for beggar-thy-neighbor protectionist policies, but it could balance them somewhat.

Prospecting for Peace

Peace, like health, is more noticeable in its absence. Add to that the irony that the peace dates most likely to be memorialized are those of treaties signed to end wars—wars that are in themselves evidence that people have failed to achieve peace. Why not elevate positive peace-keeping as a triumph? Factories and communities can count accident-free days as a way to encourage workers and drivers to be careful. Similarly, advertisement of the number of peaceful days can be extolled—especially in areas frequently beset by regional conflicts.

The effect of initiatives to increase local understanding of distant people and cultures is to decrease that sense of distance and differentness. But no one will pretend that such initiatives, even if successful, would, of themselves, insure peace. There are, however, particular skills which do enhance the process. These skills need to be widely respected among ordinary people if the countries and the world of which they are a part are to handle conflict in their midst without violence.

Local mechanism for handling disputes must be operating well to be respected. Sometimes reform is needed to bring old structures into line with modern realities. But modern is not necessarily better and a community would be well served by examining the origins of its political and judicial arrangements and comparing their successes and failures with present needs.

This can be turned into a practical exercise in local history—and a community enterprise. Valuable information is often stored in local memories, as many an oral history attests. If those organizing the project were to seek, specifically, for examples of peaceful resolution of conflict, the whole community would become involved in writing and learning its own history of peace.

But oral histories themselves should not become just another archive. Local broadcasts of what others remember are not only fascinating but can be a catalyst for finding additional information. Furthermore, it provides broadcasters with fresh material and oral historians with immediate audiences.

Storytelling, too, can be used in imaginative ways. In many parts of the world, storytelling is a treasured tradition, often accompanied by music and song of ancient origin, linking today's people with their own past. In countries without a strong storytelling tradition, adults may not admit their own fascination with a well-told story. But they will bring children and grandchildren and thus be caught up in the event.

It could be equally effective to link distant regions through storytelling exchanges, consciously looking for universal human experiences in a multiplicity of guises. At the same time, a deliberate selection of stories which highlight the value of the individual peace-making skills—whether it be by wit, wisdom or love—could bolster a sense of confidence among people.

From Fable to Factfinding

Oral histories and storytelling provide a core to common traditions, potentially adaptable to regional and international disputes. For example, reference of disputes to arbitration by an elder, a customary practice in pre-colonial Africa, may, at first glance, seem to have little modern relevance. But, within the African, post-colonial sovereign state system, that practice is reflected in the occasional reference of regional matters of dispute to the head of another African state whom those concerned respect.

Modernization is less disruptive, and thus less crisis-

prone, if it builds on the customary rather than uprooting it. Furthermore, adapting what's best of the traditional to modern improvements encourages a sense of self-respect among people who previously felt inferior to those who modernized sooner. That provides a healthy basis for peace.

As stories and history (oral or written) make clear, certain peoples are far more adept in political and judicial matters than others. It is dangerous, though, to hope such leaders will arise when hard decisions have to be made. Leadership training sessions are becoming more common-place in the economic sector. Groups within a community can sponsor similar ones centering on the kind of issues likely to arise in the public sector.

Most people in the community can benefit from leadership-training sessions, whether or not they aspire to such positions. Widespread knowledge of how and why public decisions are made is conducive to better decisions. An informed public is less likely to make unrealistic or incompatible demands. Furthermore, citizens who understand the political process will expect a higher degree of competence from those in positions of responsibility. The local community is also better able to help itself in particular matters and, in time of crisis or conflict, generate additional numbers able to serve the public. Such communities are harder to disrupt, corrupt or conquer.

Development and Defense

A high degree of literacy is not required for a community to develop the cohesiveness and strength peace requires. As many Latin American educators working with urban and rural poor have discovered, groups of illiterate adults can engage in fruitful discussion and reflection of their own problems.

It is not surprising that such adults tend to talk about concrete matters rather than ideas. For them, problems are immediate and concrete. World affairs or arms races are not likely to be one of them. The educator—or the ones organizing the local discussions—may realize that the peasant who needs ready access to water, seeds and fertilizers, and the unemployed slum dweller who finds neither work nor usable products from highly automated arms factories are present victims of the arms race. Yet, it is unlikely that families whose plot of ground barely yields enough food for themselves would be interested in discussions about security even though projects which would make more water or fertilizer available are being diverted by military expenditures. For those people and millions like them, educating for peace occurs without peace or disarmament ever being mentioned.

> Peace, like health, is more noticeable in its absence.

The link between building a cooperating community and piecing together a peaceful world is a real one. A self-assured community—no matter how remote or poor—is a form of deterrence against aggression that augments a nation's resources rather than draining them as does acquisition of arms. For instance, when development money does come to such an area, its people, practiced in cooperative efforts, can use the money more fruitfully.

However, the availability of development money could become a cause of conflict. So it should always be clear that decreasing military expenditure does not automatically mean an increase of funds for development. Requests and expectations must be realistic, taking into account that others will be making similarly urgent requests. It is crucial that the danger of frustrating rising expectations be anticipated by those planning for peace.

Arms or Jobs?

There are many areas in which arms—and the economics of arms—is essential subject matter in any

peace education program among adults. The impact of arms spending on development is certainly one; details concerning the effect of arms spending on the supply of human and natural resources is another. Greater appreciation of how arms outlays sap overall economic strength and thus increase global insecurity is a necessary component of public discussions about arms reduction and security. While the strain weapons put on national budgets is generally known, the other detrimental effects are not.

For example, most workers don't realize that the old argument that defense expenditures create jobs does not hold up under analysis. Yet, a series of studies in the U.S. and elsewhere are showing that public expenditures in civilian sectors such as housing would produce substantially more new jobs. Even a tax cut is more likely to spur overall employment than does capital-intensive arms manufacturing.

But, before large numbers of workers can be expected to support arms reduction, those whose jobs now depend on military contracts need to know that their own skills can be used to produce non-military goods. Others can follow the example of British workers at Lucas Aerospace who compiled a list of possible alternative products utilizing their skills and experience. Job victims are no more necessary than war victims.

Corporations and communities are also reassessing the effects of military contracts. A study done for the State of Connecticut has led to interest there in requiring military contracts to contain funds for future economic conversion and retraining so that industries might not be left idle when a contract expires. Planning and training for conversion will be even more important when nations begin real arms reduction.

Media in the middle

Discussion of matters such as these would proliferate if the basic information were to be transmitted by the media. Likewise, reporters and journalists could explore the impact of military spending in other areas. How much oil, for example, is required by NATO or Warsaw Pact forces? Fuel consumption in modern tanks is measured in gallons per mile rather than miles per gallon. What about the fuel consumption of jet planes that are becoming popular components of military forces worldwide?

News reporting need not be segmented. Media staff is in a better position to make the inter-connections between military and economic affairs or to estimate the military impact on the environment and development than the reader or viewer can. Reporters dig into places for statistics and background studies daily; the general public does not have that chance.

This does not mean that news reporters would become advocates of arms reduction any more than, by reporting on nuclear strategies, they are advocates of arming. That remains the proper role for commentators and editorialists. On the other hand, selection and arrangement of news reports and articles determines what most people know about current affairs beyond their immediate experience. So, consciously or unconsciously, the media determines both the tone and content of public discussion.

Specialists in peace and security can help journalists present a more balanced view. They can hold seminars and workshops for writers on all arms-related topics; they can insure a steady flow of background papers across editors' desks; they can discuss the issues crisply in Letters to the Editor and offer clear presentation of the topics as articles in journals and opinion pages.

Peace educators can also familiarize themselves with the skills for presenting information over radio or TV in an interesting fashion so that they may be useful as participants in various ways. The tendency is for educators to appear as a big-talking-face on TV—despite the fact that good teachers are good actors—and use their own classrooms as a stage. Both peace educators and those who produce radio and TV programs could enhance the quality of each specialty. Seminars and workshops for this purpose, such as those run by people from the Asian-Pacific Institute for Broadcasting Development,

would be a real public service.

This is particularly so in the case of radio. In many parts of the world, radio is *the* window to the world. Radios are cheap and portable; radio waves can reach remote islands or isolated villages. Good radio broadcasts become the classroom for the isolated.

But there is more required to do radio broadcasts well than placing a microphone before a mouth. There is also a critical need to initiate discussion with those who select news and entertainment to see if media producers themselves are conscious of the effects of their product. Radio, TV and the press clearly play the role of educators in modern society. Their task of transmitting a full view of the news is as demanding as is that of professional educators.

What's news?

Of course, daily decision on "what is news" cannot be approached with the reflection present in a professor's syllabus. But the apparent standard—what superficially interests the reader—is not a sufficient criteria for news. Nor is the most interesting news necessarily crimes, tragedies and disasters. Even in media which try to portray positive events, there is a tendency to feature bad news in national or international affairs and focus on children and kittens for the good news. No wonder the public often views world affairs as remote, complex and threatening.

No doubt it is difficult for those who face daily deadlines to make low key negotiations both interesting and understandable. People knowledgeable in particular global issues can be of service here. Groups specializing in a subject can digest the material and make it available to those with less time to follow the details; they will aid the public to be conversant on subjects involved in serious government negotiations long before treaties are signed. The Ocean Education Project, in conjunction with the United Methodists, has provided this service concerning the U.N. Law of the Sea Conference, publishing and distributing clear and accurate information about the issues and the negotiations since the mid-1970's.

The Disarmament Times likewise is geared to non-specialist audiences. Widespread distribution of such materials would increase worldwide understanding and respect for the painstaking process of reaching common agreement on complex and sensitive issues before they become subject to intense or potentially lethal conflict.

The problem of balance in news and entertainment is a ticklish one. Western news services are reviewing the complaints voiced by non-industrial nations about the failure to report to the world at-large positive accomplishments in developing countries. Balanced presentations, however, do not imply a weakening of the essential journalistic obligation to maintain sufficient distance from official news sources who have a personal stake in making all news good news about themselves.

Ironically, western media inadvertently does not mirror its own society to others in balanced terms. Most of the TV shows and movies viewed worldwide are made in the industrial world. Granted, violent police shows and cowboy stories are considered to be entertainment in the countries of origin. But those unfamiliar with Europe or America may think the violent part is the whole story, especially if news reporting of actual events is also dominated by reports of violence.

Yet most daily life is peaceful and many problems resolved without resort to violence. Skill in reporting them must be fostered along with follow-up on problems that reach amicable solutions. What is at stake, of course, is a redefinition of news.

This process could be encouraged by offering prizes in the major competitions for journalists, authors or filmmakers for significant contributions toward global understanding and other elements of confidence building. If, from the Cannes Film Festival to the Academy Awards, from Pulitzer prizes to Emmy awards, the equivalent of the Nobel Peace Prize was coveted, the proliferation of positive ideas would be impressive.

Back to school

Most of the techniques discussed in this paper are ways peace and security education can be brought to people. That's because traditional educational mechanisms reach only a limited number of adults. The bulk of the world's people have neither the time nor the opportunity to take part in formal education. And even fewer who are returning to school after years of work may choose courses that would increase their peace-making skills. Likewise, non-credit courses on war and peace, the psychology of violence, national security matters, the history of peace, international relations or any of the other subjects geared to broadening the foundations and understanding of peace have had a limited audience.

Once greater emphasis is placed on peace and security education at all levels, the popularity of such courses is likely to increase. This can be made to happen more quickly if professors anticipate the dynamics of classes containing a significantly different mix of students. Already the influx of adults with varying work experience has changed classroom dynamics. Older people, used to learning from a series of personal encounters, bring complex learning skills with them. Their questions frequently probe areas where theory does or does not fit life as they know it.

Yet, few students of any age have extensive experience in global affairs. For them, reading assignments on the decision-making process, confidence theory or nuclear strategies are sterile. That lack of immediacy can be remedied if the readings are preceded by a simulation game or role-playing exercise. Groups of students who have taken the roles of three countries, all of whose existence depends on cooperation, realize how difficult it is to cooperate when there is no previous experience for building trust—even if their life depends on it.

That game, a modification of the classic prisoner's dilemma, can also be used in informal discussion groups in combination with programs teachers or professors offer to the general public. When the audiences become the actors, they tend to talk to others about the event and its meaning—an informal but effective way to spread knowledge.

At the same time, peace and security educators can be working with academics in other fields. Almost all specialties are touched or involved in our present armed insecurity, a reality that academic categories usually do not reflect. For people trained and specializing in complex professional areas, occasional conferences devoted to world security matters restore the balance. The public benefits from such meetings if conference sponsors follow up the meetings with comprehensible publication of the key materials.

This benefit is enhanced if the sponsors themselves act as a link between the scholars and the public at large. This has certainly been the effect of the Pugwash movement which, since 1957, has brought physical and social scientists together—nationally, regionally and worldwide—to discuss and publish papers on crucial peace and world security questions. Likewise, the Club of Rome, well known for its report, *Limits to Growth*, continues to present scholarship on serious global issues to the general public, and has stimulated a body of theoretic investigation to test their hypothesis. Their latest report, *No Limits to Learning*, holds out hope that people can learn to get back into control of the world made dangerous by systems and technologies people themselves invented.

That same principle underlies the proposals made by Network to Educate for World Security. Human policies and human products have made the world complex and dangerous. It is not the complexity that is dangerous. It is our own failure to confront, understand and learn to manage complexity that endangers us. Learning to do so is up to all of us.

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Who's Doing What & How

a worldwide sampling

A Fund and a network for world security education has solid experience on which to build. Many of the ideas presented in earlier sections of these Elements are drawn or adapted from activities now taking place around the world. In this section the activities are described by those who are actually performing them.

Just as a worldwide education and communication effort would take many forms, the examples in this section are diverse. Some are old, established institutions; others small, experimental groups. Some are clearly identified with world security issues; others deal with topics or use techniques that are compatible with peace-related material.

This is by no means a directory of all that is taking place. Rather, it is meant to show the variety and extent of present efforts and to point the direction for growth when substantial funds become available.

Early education

Children learn behavior patterns long before they learn to read. Being sensitive to the kinds of impressions likely to be absorbed by the very young is the basis for the *Montessori teaching method*, now in extensive use worldwide.

> The world of the child is full of sights and sounds which at first appear chaotic. From this chaos, the child must gradually create order and learn to distinguish among the impressions that assail his or her senses, slowly but surely gaining master of self and of his or her environment.
>
> Dr. Maria Montessori developed what she called the "prepared environment" which already possesses a certain order and disposes children to develop at their own speed, according to each child's own capacities, and in a noncompetitive atmosphere in the first school years. "Never let a child risk failure, until he has a reasonable chance of success," said Dr. Montessori, understanding the necessity for acquisition of a basic skill before its use in a competitive learning situation. The years between three and six are the years that a child most easily learns the ground rules of human behaviour. These years can be constructively devoted to "civilizing" the child—freeing the child through the acquisition of good manners and habits to take his or her place in the culture.

Careful attention to the attitudes children assimilate from the classroom also underlies the *Children's Creative Response to Conflict* Program which is concerned with cooperation, communication, affirmation, problem solving and conflict resolution.

> During nine years of involvement in nonviolence training of all kinds of crisis situations, the staff of the Quaker Project (QPCC) became increasingly aware that the seeds of conflict become ingrained in children at a very early age. We saw that the old hostile patterns of response to human situations that are passed on from generation to generation now threaten the very existence of life on this planet. Therefore, in 1972 we set about adapting for young children the skills and methods we had developed which could liberate them from these negative patterns. Our goal was to involve the children in discovering some of the new and creative alternatives that they could apply in their real-life experiences outside the classroom as well as within, and to decide for themselves which of these are most appropriate or useful.

Similar goals moved Nordic educators, in conjunction with UNICEF committees and United Nations Associations in Finland, Denmark, Norway and Sweden to develop realistic and practical materials for primary and secondary classroom use. In the introduction to the special English edition of their magazine, *"Alternative"* the authors explain:

> In order to achieve international understanding, it is necessary to learn to observe the world from different angles. We all tend to view other people according to our own concept of what is "normal" and "acceptable". These attitudes are formed by our cultural background.
>
> When studying Norwegian text-books on developing countries, we find only parts of the truth, as the presentation often is influenced by our own cultural traditions.
>
> A sixth form pupil says: "We do not read about African history, but about the history of Europe in Africa. We are, for instance, taught how an American journalist met a British scientist somewhere in Tanzania and that French and British troops met at Fashoda. But we learn nothing of how people lived in these countries before and after the arrival of the Europeans."

Numerous efforts are underway to design curriculum aids that reflect greater global understanding. One of them, *Global Perspectives in Education*, explains the interdisciplinary aspect of global education:

> We must avoid the error of thinking that attaining a global perspective is somehow a matter for the social studies—a mistake many people make because they assume that a global perspective involves only the analysis of international issues. People's image of themselves, their sense of their place in history and in society, their sensitivity to creative expression, are all essential to the kind of learning we are concerned with.
>
> Every branch of science involves social questions. Questions relating to environmental health or the quality of life are likely to involve global systems. The exploration of such issues in science courses can provide important insights into the meaning of global interdependence.

Effective use of materials and new textbooks that highlight the possibilities for peace and world security depends on the attitudes and understanding the teacher brings to the classroom. One group, *Global Education*

Associates, devotes considerable time to teacher education internationally.

> We focus on a combination of *teacher education* and follow-up *organizing into a network of mutual support* and sharing so individuals are not left isolated in their local situations. We do not develop our own materials unless we perceive a specific need. We do have a large and growing Education for Justice and Peace curriculum and resource collection, however, which we utilize in our courses and workshops and which is available at our center. Through these materials, we acquaint teachers with some of the best resources in the field. ....We have found, however, that the greatest gap in EJP has not been in the development of new materials, but teacher training and continuing support. Thus, our focus on teacher education and organizing.

"Never let a child risk failure, until he has a reasonable chance of success"
—Maria Montessori

Teachers so motivated need not depend on formal materials or curricula to include world security education in daily lessons. A method developed to introduce ecological concepts into established courses shows one way new material can be woven into related course work. Some are interested in using this method for security-related topics.

> Through a unique process of infusion developed by the ECOS Training Institute (E.T.I.), desired educational changes are effected within the existing system with the minimum of disruption. With the ETI infusion process it is possible to upgrade teachers' skills, improve classroom management, strengthen community-school cooperation and diffuse knowledge and techniques throughout the school system with little or no disruption to existing programs.
>
> In order for infusion to take place, intruder material must be infused into a suitable unit in the already established program.

University courses

Although specific studies in peace and security education are relatively new, there is great variety in focus and position in the curriculum. There is some distinction among those which focus on national security, on peace studies, on international relations or on world order; yet there is convergence. As *Professor Allan Millett* of Ohio State University notes:

> Peace studies teachers know that they cannot adequately discuss the issues of international violence and defense without some knowledge of military organizations, strategic theory, and technology. If these academics can overcome their fear of being emotionally compromised or co-opted by investigating military affairs in a rational way, they may find a common interest (at least in the academic sense) with their colleagues who tend to see more legitimacy in defense spending and the use of force as an instrument of diplomacy. The latter group, who tend to view security policy studies as a function of national defense and war as an unavoidable instrument of policy, might profit as well by being forced to consider the moral implications of their assumptions. Each group, however, will have to make serious compromises before they can profit by mutual association. There is some evidence, however, that the issues of arms control and peacekeeping by the United Nations have already bridged the perception gap.

Manhattan College in Riverdale encourages each student wishing to concentrate on peace studies

> ...to pursue a dual major in such fields as, for example, Economics, Government, Languages, Psychology or Religious Studies so as to have an in-depth training in a traditional discipline.

At the *University of Bradford* in West Yorkshire, England, programs in peace studies wed theory with experience:

> ...one-year—the third—being spent away from the University, in employment, for example, in community work in this country or overseas. This year will provide a possible welcome break from university life and its necessary concentration on intellectual work. It will also offer an excellent opportunity for examining ideas in the practical context and provide a source of information and experience to review and analyse in the final year.

A novel approach to attracting students to peace-related themes is underway in England. As the flyer

advertising the *Student Peace Project* states:

> Do something *really* worthwhile for your project, dissertation or theses! We are urgently seeking students who can relate their studies to understanding the nature of peaceful relationships at every level of society. If you need inspiration, our specialist Resources Guides are available to help.

To assist in course design, the *Institute for World Order* through its *Transnational Academic Program* publishes a Peace and World Order Curriculum guide of courses being taught throughout the United States that are

> ...selected either because they display conceptual clarity about the principal topical and analytical themes of the Peace and World Order Studies field, or because they are sufficiently rich in informational detail as to be genuinely useful. Indeed, many contain what are tantamount to "mini-essays" on the topical/analytical themes of Peace and World Order Studies, and therefore should be consulted if for no other reason than to gain deeper understanding of the field...

Study abroad undoubtedly increases a student's awareness of other ways of approaching similar circumstances. Although opportunities to study abroad are limited, the effects are magnified in the contacts a student may make while abroad or upon returning home. Many colleges and universities actively encourage and assist those undertaking such study. Independent assistance is also available from such places as the *Institute of International Education* which

> ...assists U.S. students by running a national competition for some 600 grants for graduate study abroad...IIE supervises the academic degree programs of its foreign students, arranging university admission and securing financial aid for many...publishes standard reference works on education exchange and guides to international study in special fields.

The educators themselves are interested in sharing ideas and techniques and have set up networks for that purpose. One among them is the *World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession*

> ...an international body composed of teachers' organizations in all regions of the world. It was founded in 1952 by a merger of three major international federations of teachers....promotes continuing exchange of professional knowledge and organizational experience amongst its members...seeks to play a major role in promoting closer links amongst all international teachers' organizations...fosters international understanding amongst educators and through their educational work, amongst the wider public and thereby contributes to the promotion of a global community and world peace.

Despite various methods for combining peace-related specialties to traditional subject matter at the college and graduate level, most university students have little or no direct contact with material dealing with international affairs or security. For a large number of students, then, there is little opportunity for even minimal contact with global issues. However, certain disciplines, international business for example, have long recognized the crucial importance of international understanding and have designed curricula in that light. *The American Graduate School for International Management (Thunderbird)* requires courses in each of three divisions: World Business, International Studies and Modern Languages.

> This course division helps to fulfill the school's objectives, among which are to encourage knowledgeable, socially responsible and effective leadership in business, governmental and multinational institutions and social agencies engaged in international operations. It also provides leaders who are capable of creative communication, who are fully aware of the needs and principles of international organizations, and who are committed to adapting scientific management to the promotion of a productive, prosperous and peaceful international environment.

The programmes sponsored by the *United Nations University* in Tokyo likewise contribute to improving the prospects of peace. The University

> ...does not have students and faculties in the traditional sense, but instead links and coordinates the work of scientists and scholars throughout the world...
>
> The University's work is organized under three main programmes: World Hunger, Human and Social Development, and Use and Management of Natural Resources. It focuses on aspects of these three topics that can be usefully examined on a collaborative interdisciplinary basis by scholars from many parts of the

world and seeks to reinforce and add new dimensions to the work of other organizations.

Certainly, the best known international educational agency is *UNESCO* whose

> ...aim is to stimulate progress in education, science, culture and communication. It encourages international cooperation in these fields by bringing experts together, by serving as a clearinghouse for pertinent materials, and by providing assistance to member states.

At the 1980 Unesco *World Congress on Disarmament Education*, educational experts from around the world backed major efforts in disarmament education and communication. The Congress recommended that the Director General of Unesco

> ...encourage initiatives designed to make adequate funds available for the significant development of disarmament education, by supporting, more especially, the suggestion of the United Nations Secretary-General that the equivalent of one-tenth of one percent of military spending should be devoted to national and international efforts in favour of disarmament, including disarmament education and information and draw up, on the basis of the work of the Congress a detailed, phased action plan, on the understanding that this plan will coincide with Unesco's next Medium-Term Plan, thereby helping to make the Second Disarmament Decade a disarmament education decade.

The United Nations General Assembly has taken another step in preparing the world's people for practical disarmament by accepting the Costa Rican plan to establish a graduate school devoted to peace.

> In proposing the creation of the *University for Peace*, the government of Costa Rica is completely conscious of several things: 1) It's necessary to put to work an international institution of higher learning and research dedicated exclusively to intensifying the study of the problems regarding the formation of peaceful men, with the support of other institutions and organizations around the world; 2) there does not exist at the moment any organism of this type in any region or country of the world; 3) the model of the institution we wish to arrive at should be perfected through permanent reflection regarding the problems of education for peace; and 4) this type of education should not be oriented only towards the topics characteristic of a philosophy and pedagogy of peace, but should also cover the social, scientific and technological problems entailed in the idea of a peaceful, just, disarmed, nonviolent and unprejudiced world.

Research institutions

A curriculum, such as Costa Rica is proposing, will have at hand materials from research institutes and U.N. studies in a wide variety of subject areas related to peace and world security. For example:

> ***International Peace Research Association (IPRA)*** promotes research on the theory of conflict and conflict resolution, the theory of peace, structural analysis and futuristic prescriptive studies.
>
> ***International Institute for Strategic Studies (I.I.S.S.)***, founded in 1958, is an international independent research center. Research interests include international security, conflict and international relations and arms control. The I.I.S.S. has some 1500 members in some 55 countries, and its publications are subscribed to in over 60 countries.
>
> ***Rule of Law Research Center's*** (Duke University) principal activity is research and publication on questions of law and international organization bearing on security, peace, disarmament and world order. All members of the professional staff are lawyers with specialized training in international and comparative law.
>
> ***The Conference on Peace Research in History (CPRH)*** was formed to encourage, support, and coordinate peace research among historians and social scientists. Viewing war and its causes as among the most serious problems confronting humanity, members of the CPRH seek to apply intellectual resources to the quest for a peaceful world.

Within the United Nations a series of valuable background papers are being prepared for U.N. disarmament committees,—both on-going committees and those set up for a particular purpose following the 1978 Special Session on Disarmament. One significant set of papers is being prepared for the *Group of Governmental Experts on the Relationship Between Disarmament and Development*. The subjects to be covered include:

- Present-day utilization of resources for military purposes (labor, research and development capacity, production facilities and land)
- Economic and social effects of a continuing arms race and of the implementation of disarmament measures
- Conversion and redeployment of resources released for military purposes through disarmament measures to economic and social development purposes.

Funding for research is varied; some private, non-profit; some attached to private or public academic institutions. One of them, the *Stockholm International Peace Research Institute*, is a governmental creation:

> SIPRI was founded on 1 July 1966 by the Swedish Parliament to commemorate Sweden's 150 years of unbroken peace. The funds are provided solely by the Swedish Parliament. The Institute is totally independent. Its operations are the responsibility of an International Governing Board.
>
> The Institute's policy is to study issues pragmatically, selecting topics of importance to decision-makers in current international politics. To date, SIPRI has concentrated mainly on problems of armaments and disarmament.

SIPRI publications—a yearbook, specialized books and papers—provide detailed information to governments, scholars, journalists and the general public on a regular basis.

Ruth Leger Sivard's annual *World Military and Social Expenditures* links arms expenditure to other issues.

> The purpose of this report is to provide an annual accounting of the use of world resources for social and for military purposes, and an objective basis for assessing relative priorities. In bringing together military and social data for direct comparison, the report bridges a gap in the information otherwise available to the public. It is hoped that this will help to focus attention on the competition for resources between two kinds of priorities.

Resource distribution

A variety of resources are made available to the general public through distribution centers. The *Armament and Disarmament Information Unit* at the University of Sussex at Brighton, England

> facilitates communication between individuals and groups within and without the specialist community. ADIU is a resource available to academics, journalists, interest groups, politicians, trades unionists and any one else who is interested in the problems of armament and disarmament. There are no limitations on access to ADIU information and anyone is welcome to contact...by telephone, letter or in person.

Also located in England is the *Commonweal Collection* which contains

> some 3,000 carefully selected books and files of over 100 magazines in the fields of nonviolent action, the peace movement, Gandhian literature, social decentralisation, the alternative society, creative education, spiritual experience and also material on the present world crisis, especially in its ecological aspects.

Arms & jobs

Specialized studies in the economic aspect of military expenditures were carried out by the *Employment Research Association* of Lansing, Michigan. One of its reports, "The Impact of Military Spending on the Machinists Union," shows

> ...the impact of the military budget upon employment nationwide. It shows how many jobs are gained through military contracts and salaries and compares this figure with the number of jobs which would have been created if the tax monies going to the Pentagon had stayed in the taxpayers hands to be spent on consumer goods and services. Then the report focuses on the impact of the Pentagon's budget on Machinists Union members in terms of job opportunities gained or lost on a state-by-state basis.

The findings of that study make up a part of one done by the *Connecticut Department of Economic Development* looking into defense dependency on that state. The author comments:

> Economic conversion has occurred to a limited degree in Connecticut, examples are utility and marine versions of Pratt & Whitney engines and the often-cited Kaman Aerospace transfer of vibration technology from helicopter to guitar production. Diversification is a more common experience, with firms acquiring or expanding non-defense product lines. Major problems with conversion result from limited capability for cost-minimization and limited skills in civilian production. 90% of current defense purchases (as opposed to 20% during World War I) are built specifically for the military and for which there is limited or no civilian application.

The collection is housed on permanent loan in the J. B. Priestley Library of the University of Bradford.

Prospective, with headquarters in Brussels, Belgium, uses a different method for selection of topics and distribution of materials:

> A preliminary choice of topics to become the object of a file is made by an International Board of Directors who bring to a twice-yearly meeting a broad background of interests, cultures, and professional expertise. These topics are further refined by an International Research Council made up of specialists in various fields.
>
> Significant articles, extracts from specialized studies or publications are analyzed, synthesized and presented, together with an overall introduction to the various chapters of the study which situates the contents and underscores the orientation and significance of the texts chosen.
>
> Once a file is sufficiently developed, it is sent to over 3000 subscribers or correspondents in 104 countries, above all those of the Third World. Over a period of two-three years, additional information is sent, either to complete a chapter or to start a new one.

Distribution is frequently a problem for research organizations. One way is being tried by the *Institute for Research in History* which has

> ...begun to organize its own national distribution to establish a non-profit education "brokerage" house which uses already existing film libraries, state resource centers, materials developed by the state councils for the arts and humanities, and production from the National Endowment. The Institute has defined its users as libraries, especially public libraries in small cities and towns, historical societies, again with special emphasis on the smaller societies, and small museums.
>
> The service is highly individualized and includes a goodly amount of program development. They do not warehouse all the materials. However, they do assess the quality of what is available and only recommend what they think to be fine products.

Facilitating international communication between groups now active in peace-related fields, *Housman's Booksellers* in London publishes a yearly *Peace Directory* which

> ...lists the title, address, telephone, secretary, publication, etc. of some 1,600 organisations and periodicals in over 100 countries and gives an abbreviated indication of their work. As far as possible entries are in the language of each country..

Spreading the message

Specialized publications particularly suitable for general circulation include *The Disarmament Times*, a newspaper that focuses on disarmament-related activities, including reports of meetings of the various U.N. Commissions and Committees for disarmament.

Donald Keys of *Planetary Citizens* provides a different service, publishing a brief summary of annual General Assembly Sessions, including a box score of how the nations voted on key issues.

> Criteria in Scoring: Evaluation of resolutions is based on their accord with the following criteria: world peace and just relations among nations; economic equity; human rights and social justice; effective world organization; preservation of environment and ecological balance.
>
> Selection of resolutions: Representative resolutions in areas of political questions, disarmament, and international security; human rights and decolonization; economic justice and equity; strengthening the UN, are selected to provide a spread of questions and voting patterns on a variety of issues, allowing emergence of an "averaging" profile on State behavior.

Notable among other publications which specialize in arms reduction-related subjects is *The Bulletin of the Atomic Scientists:*

> Founded in 1945 by Hyman H. Goldsmith and Eugene Rabinowitch. Published by the Educational Foundation for Nuclear Science, Inc. The Bulletin Clock, symbol of the threat of nuclear doomsday hovering over mankind, stands (in 1980) at seven minutes to midnight.

As important as spreading understanding of arms related issues is clear presentation of difficult matters that could become a cause of controversy and tension. *Soundings*, a bi-monthly publication subtitled *Law of the Sea News and Comment*, does just that. Written in popular language by writers close to Law of the Sea negotiations, it is an invaluable resource for journalists, teachers and legislators.

The importance of electronic media is indisputable. Yet presenting world security education in ways that will be both interesting and accurate is a challenge. Workshops to train radio and television specialists along

with educators adept at non-formal education techniques are fruitful. As explained in curriculum notes of the *Asia-Pacific Institute for Broadcasting Development:*

> Clear objectives are essential for a successful workshop, and one which can be successfully evaluated. Providing there is clarity, a workshop may have more than one objective.
>
> It is recommended that normally the objective be to train broadcasters and non-formal education personnel to work as a single radio, or TV production unit. Each thus needs to understand the strength and limitations of the other and to be able to draw on the different traditions and skills for the common purpose of producing programmes which satisfy non-formal education needs. It is important for broadcasters and non-formal educators to have some appreciation of each other's approaches, and essential for broadcasters as well as the educators to understand the principles and processes of non-formal education. But it is not intended that educators become fully fledged broadcasters.

One group with extensive experience in the broadcasting field is the *SANE Education Fund.*

> *Consider the Alternatives* is a weekly, half-hour radio forum broadcasting timely coverage of important issues, with commentary and thoughtful analysis from leading political and cultural opinion-makers. It can be heard on over 400 commercial and non-commercial stations throughout the country and is distributed free of charge by the Longhorn Radio Network, University of Texas at Austin.
>
> The SANE Education Fund is also the producer of a 13-part radio series entitled "Shadows of the Nuclear Age: American Culture and National Security in the Nuclear Age" made possible by a grant from the National Endowment for the Humanities. This special series of half-hour documentaries will be an unique, in-depth examination of the effects of nuclear weaponry and technology on our daily lives and will be available for broadcast in October, 1980 through this syndication.

The United Nations offers a brand new series of short films called *VIGNETTES*

> ...to answer the needs of magazine-format television programming world-wide. These films are being produced to broaden the scope of such programming to include the international activities of the United Nations family. Each segment concerns itself with a different aspect of the work of the UN in all corners of the globe.
>
> Made to be used in a number of ways, VIGNETTES are available either with French or English mixed sound track on 16mm colour film or on NTSC 3/4" videocassette. For other language adaptations, separate international music and effects tracks are included, with scripts in English or French.

An effective way to gain comprehension of complex issues, institutions and situations is through simulations and games. The *UNA/USA Model UN* is one well-known example.

> Model UN conferences are held throughout the United States and Canada, and bring together groups as small as 15 delegates and as large as 1700. Model UNs are held annually in almost every part of the country, yet each one operates independently. Through role-playing, students "represent" the various member states of the United Nations in a series of meetings of the General Assembly, the Security Council and committees, usually over a one-to-five day period.

Assistance in choosing appropriate simulations and evaluating available games for peace and security programs is provided by the *Denison Simulation Center.*

> The Center has cataloged over 900 various simulations in a completely computerized system. The Center averages 20 requests a month for information and/or the Simulation Resource Catalog. Over 850 copies of the catalog have been distributed to colleges and universities around the country.
>
> With a Director and a full-time secretary, the Center serves as a clearing-house for a core of highly qualified faculty skilled in the design, use, and evaluation of simulation models.

There are many groups particularly interested in the world security issues that report regularly to their own particular constituencies. Among them are the *Catholic International Centre* in Paris.

> The Catholic International Centre for Unesco aims to be of service to all, and in particular to the 15 Catholic International Organisations with consultative status at Unesco working in such various spheres as education, the teaching of children and young people, social work, intellectual work, development, press, radio, cinema and television. These organisations consist of both men and women, and also of young people, and work in every milieu, rural, workers, etc.

Hungarian Bishop Dr. Karoly Toth, General Secretary of the *Christian Peace Conference* of Prague

has this to say about the work of the Conference.

> I come from a peace movement—the Christian Peace Conference—that is, from peace activities in practice. This does not mean, however, that we do not pursue theoretical peace work; on the contrary, the CPC is deeply engaged in studying problems similar to those that peace researchers are dealing with.
>
> I am from a socialist country. Although the CPC is an international Christian organization, yet it is true that the Christian churches living in the socialist countries are strongly represented in it. In other words, the peace issue is particularly apt for research and cooperation between Christians and Marxists in spite of their ideological differences.

It takes an hour before we desperately start acting, and during that hour the Danish defence forces have used 720,000 kr.

The *World Federalists* approach the same issues from a different perspective. As those in the American chapter point out:

> We're the only membership organization in the United States whose sole business is applying federalists principles to the complex issues of world peace, curbing pollution, equitable allocation of resources, establishing a mechanism for enforcing international law, and other world problems.
>
> The federalists movement encompasses people with similar aims around the world. As an organized force Federalists over the past thirty years have played a significant role in establishment of the Arms Control and Disarmament Agency, the Limited Test Ban Treaty and been in the forefront in support of SALT. So you see we're no Johnnie-come-latelies to the cause of world order.

In some cases like-minded groups coalesce to sponsor conferences, publish papers and issue joint statements. *Pugwash Conferences* are a long-standing example of this type.

> The first Pugwash Conference on Science and World Affairs was held in the village of Pugwash, Nova Scotia in 1957 at the invitation of Cyrus Eaton, in order to promote greater communication between scientists of the world, with a view to preventing a nuclear holocaust. That conference was attended by 20 scientists from some 10 countries including the U.S.A., U.S.S.R., United Kingdom, Australia, Canada, China, France and Japan.
>
> Since that time, the Movement has spread all over the world so that it now embraces more than 1,600 participants from more than 50 countries and includes not only physical scientists but also social scientists from a variety of disciplines and from the developing as well as the developed nations.
>
> The Movement has also broadened its work to include not only nuclear and other disarmament, but also international development and international security.

Some groups are geared to political action and frequently join forces around a particular issue.

> More than forty national organizations—unions, peace, religious, social change and research groups—make up the *Coalition for a New Foreign and Military Policy.* In Washington, the Coalition draws up the strategy for action. Our organizations assemble their lobbying forces. Members across the nation step up the pressure on key decision-makers.

Project Ploughshares is a coalition focusing more exclusively on military issues. Its education packet

> was prepared by the Development Education Centre and Project Ploughshares and published by the Project to familiarize Canadians with the issues of militarism and military spending. The kit is divided into sections which may be used separately or together. It is designed for use in schools, churches and other community institutions. A bibliography is included for those who wish to delve deeper into an understanding of the global military order.
>
> The present contents of the kit provide basic educational materials to which future sections will be added on other areas of the struggle for disarmament. It is hoped that the kit will contribute to a wide-ranging public discussion of Canadian military policy and how it fits into a runaway arms race.

Many of the organizations associated with the U.N. in the status of *Non-Governmental Organizations (NGO)* tie their interests together internationally. A con-

ference of NGOs with headquarters in Geneva has had 14 General Assemblies to discuss important issues before the U.N. Many NGOs convert their convictions into action.

Several groups are active in the Netherlands. In a paper discussing the activities of the *Interchurch Peace Council (IKV)* the authors

> ...discuss the origins, aims and methods of the campaign which an organization of the churches in the Netherlands, the Interchurch Peace Council, has been conducting since 1977 to obtain the removal of nuclear weapons from the Netherlands, in order to initiate and help to bring about a process of disarmament. We shall try to analyse why, apparently quite suddenly, there is a revival of interest in matters of nuclear strategy and disarmament and to answer the question in which ways the campaign could affect public opinion and, through this, might have an impact on the foreign policy behaviour of the Dutch government as well as on that of its allies in NATO and the countries of the Warsaw Pact.
>
> We shall describe briefly the changes in public opinion in the Netherlands with respect to (nuclear) disarmament and the backgrounds and character of the campaign mentioned above. Then we shall turn to the criticisms leveled against the campaign and discuss the prospects of the campaign in terms of political support and its contribution to consciousness raising and peace education. In the last part we shall present some views on the institutionalization and contents of peace and disarmament education and its relation to political action.

Far more spontaneous was the decision of a handful of women in Denmark to ask women to sign petitions against policies based on arms. Bodil Graae describes the origins of the idea *"Women for Peace"* that resulted in the collection of 50,000 signatures in two days.

> We are three women sitting around a blue-painted kitchen table. We are depressive on a heavy January day. Skimming the front pages, Afghanistan, Iran, increased mobilisation, new mortal weapons. It takes an hour before we desperately start acting, and during that hour the Danish defence forces have used 720,000 kr. In a few years time they might possibly use double per hour. From 1949 until 1959 we used 6 billion and 795, 8 million on the defence. From 1969 until 1979 the military expences had increased to 48 billion 138, 3 million. Eight times as much.

Some action groups—such as Ms. Graae's— are involved in raising public awareness to the dangers of the present course. Others are directly involved in anticipating and stemming conflict. *The International Peace Academy* has an outstanding record in this field.

> 114 countries have sent military and diplomatic officials to the unique international training seminars in peacekeeping and peacemaking conducted by the International Peace Academy since 1970.
>
> The seminars, conducted in English, French, Spanish or Portuguese, have become the focal point of IPA activities. The IPA's second area of expertise is its publications, including the recently released Peacekeeper's Handbook. The handbook is being adopted by many national governments as the basic training and reference guide to U.N. peacekeeping.
>
> The IPA also conducts action research into current disputes, such as the process for peaceful settlement of conflict, as well as sets forth options for possible third party roles which might be required to resolve the problem.

Complementary efforts

While not involved in the international conflict, the *Community Relations Service* of the U.S. Department of Justice is a valuable model of productive intervention in tense situations.

> The Community Relations Service (CRS) was established by Title X of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 "to provide assistance to communities...in resolving disputes, disagreements, or difficulties relating to discrimination based on race, color, or national origin..."
>
> The Service carries out this mandate through conciliation, mediation, and technical assistance—processes that enable communities to settle racial/ethnic problems without going through lengthy, costly litigation or the continuous disruption that often follows when grievances are not addressed.
>
> Almost a third of CRS' cases involved police/minority problems. Typically, trouble started when a policeman killed or otherwise injured or allegedly harassed a minority person, prompting charges of unnecessary use of deadly force, demonstrations, or lawsuits. Almost invariably, community animosity went deeper than the immediate incident, calling forth memories of old grievances, which sometimes included previous shootings.

In most of these situations CRS' conciliators and mediators did not concentrate just on the immediate incident. They also sought to help the police and their antagonists resolve their other differences. Wherever there was receptivity, the approach was to bring police, other public officials, and minority community representatives together for face-to-face discussions.

As mediator, CRS' objective in such discussions was to get the parties to work out a formal agreement specifically stating what steps would be taken to address problems both sides accepted as valid.

In some communities tensions do not develop into crisis. Although there are multiple reasons why some groups of people can handle differences among themselves peacefully, positive projects can help increase mechanisms of cooperation. *The America the Beautiful Fund* has stimulated such projects in numerous communities, expecially rural ones.

ABF offered a variety of services to emerging and growing civic and cultural groups. The principle components were advisory services, recognition and endorsement, incentive and achievement awards, education, technical and workshop services, emergency funds and seed money. We differ from most funding sources in that money is the least important tool which a needy project can expect to receive from ABF.

How community activities could be used to enrich cultural understanding is shown in the ABF report on the Spanish American harvest festival near Santa Fe, New Mexico.

The site of the annual event is an old hacienda, now a museum, built on land from a 17th Century Spanish land grant. Visitors to the fair can see Spanish dancers performing, blacksmiths at work, "molinos" (stone mills) grinding corn and wheat. There is washing, carding, spinning, and the dying of wool, and there are soapmaking demonstrations. All the activities of the original settlers are exhibited. Old, almost forgotten games are played and enjoyed again. Molasses is prepared along with tortillas and a variety of other old Spanish dishes, which are sold to the attendants. The festival helps to support the year round activities of the museum.

Innovative ways of adapting traditional arts to the cause of peace abound. Storyteller *Laura Simms* thinks peace themes can be emphasized as well as the other universal themes.

Ms. Simms performs storytelling for audiences of all ages as a ritual theatre art. She searches for legends, myths, folk tales and fairy tales that emerged from the oral tradition of storytelling in all cultures. She has to blend the stories of different cultures with today's culture to achieve a living quality.

Myths, legends and tales, interpreted for 20th century audiences by Simms, emphasize with magical circumstances and exaggerated human characteristics that man is today as he has always been. Whether a tale points out his strengths, his weaknesses or his aspirations, the human characteristics portrayed are the same today as when the story was first told up to 2,000 years ago.

Innovative ways of adapting traditional arts to the cause of peace abound.

That academic materials become part of adult experience was the challenge to the state-based programs of the *U.S. National Endowment for the Humanities.*

Through demonstrations of the applications of the humanities to the problems and possibilities of local, regional and national life, the state programs refute the notion that the humanities belong strictly to the college and university curriculum. This year (1979) the state programs, the first of which began in 1971, will spend over 22 million dollars, matched by cash and in kind contributions in support of more than 24,000 projects. It is anticipated their combined activities will reach more than 23,000,000 people. Through public forums, lectures, debates, films and other forms of media, the state programs have made the purposes and methods of the humanities available to the public in ways as varied as the interests of the disciplines themselves.

Many people of the world are well-served by numerous programs, resources and groups such as these. The need to extend and augment those efforts is immediate. This can be done through a global Fund, devoted to educating for a secure peace.

—Quotes from—

Alternative
Opplag 4000-78
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219 Shoreham Bldg.
Washington, D.C. 20005 U.S.A.

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Armament and Disarmament Information Unit (ADIU)
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Arms Control Today
Arms Control Assn.
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Asia-Pacific Institute for Broadcasting Development
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The Bulletin of the Atomic Scientists
1020-24 East 58th St.
Chicago, IL 60637 U.S.A.

Catholic International Centre for Unesco
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75007 Paris, France

Children's Creative Response to Conflict
Box 271
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Defense Monitor
Center for Defense Information
122 Maryland Ave. N.E.
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The Disarmament Times
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Global Perspectives in Education
218 East 18th St.
New York, N.Y. 10003 U.S.A.

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Soundings: Law of the Sea News and Comment
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Administrative Model:
organizing for flexibility

MAY . . 1981

I

Overview

A. The Fund

Substantial sums of money are spent annually in support of arms as the bedrock of national security. Arms budgets include public information units. Arms manufacturers advertise their wares. Defense ministries around the world can be counted on to represent their interest in public debate.

Those who enter that debate on the side of alternative means to assure security have far less official or financial backing. Thus, the public at large does not have equal chance to know about the alternatives and evaluate the relative competence of various systems to provide world security.

Direct financial support, over and above what is now spent on education of all sorts, will be required if a world-wide education and public information program for peace and world security is to be sufficiently comprehensive. Furthermore, tangible support from national budgets is essential if the effort is to be highly visible to the general public. To use the disarmament project: Fund, suggested by Secretary-General Waldheim, would accomplish both aims and, in addition, provide a sound base for meaningful arms reduction.

Yet, earmarking such a Fund for education, information and public relations efforts is only the beginning. It is crucial that the bulk of the money be spent directly among the general population. Thus, efficient and effective use of this Fund is essentially dependent on the structure of the administration and the Boards which guide it.

B. Purpose of the Model

The following model is a practical way to administer the Fund under United Nations auspices. Undoubtedly, it is only one of many ways the Fund could function well. However, certain aspects of the model have proved effective in other large organizations and agencies.

This model attempts to account for the need to combine cohesion in the overall program with flexibility in detail. It attempts to maximize both governmental and professional expertise. And it aims at insuring wide participation in decision-making within a framework that moves a high proportion of the funds to actual, local programs.

C. Governance and Disbursement of Funds

This model envisions a central Fund, predominantly from governmental sources, to be governed by a Global Board of Overseers appointed by participating nations. That Board will allocate a majority of the funds to Regional Boards for regrants to various educational activities proposed and implemented by public or non-public groups in local areas. Such grants will assure that those carrying out the programs are close to those who will be participating. Local people are more likely to be able to apply their professional skills in educating and communicating in ways appropriate to local needs. In addition, a requirement that those applying for grants provide matching funds (in cash or in kind) will reinforce indigenous commitment, while, at the same time, discouraging applications from those who might regard the Fund as a convenient source for personal or agency support.

D. Relation to U.N.

At the outset, the Fund may be housed in a related U.N. agency in order to benefit from its experience. It will draw heavily on materials from U.N.-related agencies for the central information exchange. In addition, Regional Boards may make program regrants to U.N. agencies operating within a region. Once the Fund is in operation, it may be beneficial to constitute it as a distinct, U.N.-related agency.

E. Relation to National Governments

Contributing governments will appoint members to the Global Board of Overseers and nominate professional candidates for the Regional Boards. National government agencies may apply for grants to be carried out within their countries or in cooperation with other participating governments in a region.

F. Relation to Non-Governmental Organizations, Specialized Groups and Individuals

If the Fund is open to contributions from non-governmental sources, provision is made for limited representation on the Global Board of Overseers. The Regional Boards will be made up entirely of people experienced in various aspects of education and communication. Outside groups may receive program regrants.

G. Inauguration of the Fund

The Fund will go into operation as soon as two countries in each of two regions signal firm intent to contribute to the Fund. Thus the mechanisms can be established and modest programs begun prior to full subscription to the Fund.

II.

Function of Boards (Central and Regional)

A. Global Board of Overseers

- ☐ Assumes worldwide responsibility for program
- ☐ Promotes concepts and solicits worldwide participation
- ☐ Sets parameters for peace and world security subject matter
- ☐ Sets general program guidelines
- ☐ Establishes worldwide information exchange service
- ☐ Appoints members to Regional Boards
- ☐ Fosters flexibility in regional and local application
- ☐ Manages Fund
  - —prepares yearly budget
  - —oversees collection of funds
  - —sets allocation formula among participating regions
  - —reviews regional program guidelines
  - —disperses bloc grants for program
  - —reviews and approves regional financial and program audits
  - —audits central administration

Staff support for the Global Board of Overseers may be provided by the U.N. Secretariat or a special U.N. agency or by a newly created U.N.-related entity.

B. Regional Boards

- ☐ Establish formula for fund allocation for programs in participating nations
- ☐ Set particular program guidelines appropriate to regional circumstances, considering cost effectiveness, number of people reached, etc.
- ☐ Solicit specific program proposals
- ☐ Make decisions on individual program grants
- ☐ Monitor implementation of program at local level
- ☐ Evaluate effectiveness of program
- ☐ Make required reports to Global Board of Overseers
- ☐ Forward material to worldwide information exchange
- ☐ Hire staff necessary to carry out the responsibilities

C. Public/Private Groups or Agencies
(within or among nations in region)

- ☐ Propose programs
- ☐ Implement programs
- ☐ Develop information and experience for worldwide exchange
- ☐ May contribute to fund

III.

Membership of Boards (Central and Regional)

A. Global Board of Overseers
(represents contributors)

- ☐ 16-24 representatives appointed by national governments
- ☐ 1-6 non-governmental representatives (optional)
- ☐ 2 representatives from each of 8 regions
- ☐ Selection made at regional level
- ☐ Regions become eligible for representation as soon as 2 countries in region are contributing to Fund
- ☐ Representatives can only be from among contributing nations
- ☐ If only 2 nations within a region are contributing, each national government appoints one member
- ☐ If more than 2 nations are contributing, those governments will agree among themselves on rotation of representatives
- ☐ Regions with significantly more population than others may receive additional seats (up to a total of 6) with each additional nation contributing
- ☐ Board will be established as soon as 2 governments within each of 2 regions indicate intent to contribute
- ☐ Total Board may not fall below 8 members. If number of regions participating is not sufficient to fill 8 governmental slots, participating regions may temporarily distribute vacant seats among themselves
- ☐ If Fund is open to non-governmental contributions, representation is by category of donors (foundation, corporate, religious) without regard to geographic spread

Seats	Region	Approx. pop. (+000,000)
2-6	Middle and Southeast Asia	1,258
2-6	East Asia & Oceania	1,167
2	Socialist Europe	398
2	Sub-Sahara Africa	351
2	Western Europe	349
2	North America (inc. Mexico)	312
2	Latin America & Caribbean (excl. Mexico)	284
2	North Africa & Southwest Asia	202

Global Board of Overseers meets once yearly after Fund is in operation. Vote is normally by consensus; if division needed, 2/3 required.

B. Regional Boards
(represents professionals)

- ☐ 15-21 members
- ☐ Nominations of Regional Boards are open; selection is done by Global Board of Overseers from a short list presented by Board members from that region
- ☐ Members of Regional Boards will be drawn from the regions, but need not be from contributing nations
- ☐ Boards composed of at least one member from each professional category
- ☐ Membership profile will include particular characteristics (no single person can satisfy more than one category and two characteristics)

Categories	Characteristics
Researcher	Urban — large
Academic administrator	Urban — moderate
Professor	Rural
Instructor (pre-collegiate)	Industrialized nation
Media—electronic	Public sector
Media—print	Non-public sector
Community Organizer	Female
Worker/Farmer	
Religious/NGO	
Economist	

Regional Boards may meet up to four times per year. Vote on policy issues normally by consensus; if division needed, 2/3 required.

Vote on program regrants: 2/3 required.

IV.

The Fund

A. Contributions

- ☐ Fund contributions should be annual and voluntary. The annual worldwide estimate of military expenditures provides the target
- ☐ Pledges of intent for future contributions will be made for purpose of long-range budget continuity
- ☐ Each nation is to contribute the same proportionate share as it does to the general U.N. budget
- ☐ Any nation whose actual contribution falls below one-half of its proportionate share is not eligible for Global Board of Overseers representation
- ☐ The Fund may be augmented by additional national contributions or non-governmental gifts
- ☐ Those receiving grants from the Fund for local/national programs must provide equal matching contributions (in cash or in kind)
- ☐ Additional and/or matching contributions are counted over and above the Fund target based on arms expenditures.

B. Disbursements

Global Board of Overseers:
proportionate split of total Fund

25%—administration (Board & staff)

10%—information exchange

65%—distribution to regions

Regional Boards:
proportionate split of distributed funds

15%—administration (Boards & staffs)

85%—regrant to programs (matched by grantee)

V.

Model Budgets (in percentages)

Category	Description	Global Fund	Regional Shares Developed	Regional Shares Developing
Infant thru H.S.	Text, revision, materials, guides, outlines	—	10%	12%
Colleges/Grad. Schools	Course development, texts, curricula, etc.	—	10%	6%
Teacher training	Incl. summer workshops, in-service training	—	10%	12%
Scholarships/Fellowships	College/grad.	—	4%	8%
Research		—	10%	4%
Centers	Link academic/ outreach. Contact media, religious, civic, political sectors; schools, libraries etc.	10%	10%	10%
TV-established	Forums, dramas, documentaries.	—	8%	2%
Radio-established	Forums, dramas, documentaries.	—	2%	6%
Newspapers-established	Articles, etc.	—	4%	4%
Indep. Information	Film strips, cassetters, etc.	—	4%	6%
Research	Effective techniques, etc.	—	2%	3%
Speakers Bureau		—	2%	1%
Conferences		—	4%	2%
Economic conversion	Studies		4%	—
Development	Studies	—	—	6%
Grant program	Uncategorized	65%	6%	8%
Administration	Promotion, monitoring, auditing, Board expense	25%	10%	10%
		100%	100%	100%

VI.

Guideline Considerations

Program guidelines are the responsibility of the Global and Regional Boards. However, certain items are worth consideration.

Both cost of programs and activities appropriate to the individual needs of particular areas vary widely. Yet, it may be possible to arrive at a cost-per-person-reached ratio on a regional basis. The value of one expensive program versus several less costly ones is another consideration.

Guidelines that foster experimentation and flexibility in both subject matter and technique are desirable. However, there must be a demonstrable relationship between the proposed activity and peace and world security education.

Program regrants should not substitute for current support from other sources. Neither can current activities be counted as equivalent to national or matching contributions.

Whenever possible, fund support for programs should be considered temporary rather than permanent. In cases where efficiency indicates a multi-year grant be made, periodic review is advisable. Short-term programs can re-apply for additional funding in competition with new proposals.

VII.

Worldwide Information Exchange

This activity must be closely linked to actual educational activities supported by the Fund. It should be readily accessible to any and all individuals, groups or institutions interested in or participating in peace and world security education activities, whether or not their governments are participating in the Fund.

The information should include resource materials, examples of on-going activities, various techniques, groups already in the field and new ideas that emerge as programs are developed. Areas where little information is available should be indicated so that those engaged in research and development might be directed to make up the deficit.

Exchanges set up in each region will perform similar services and act as an efficient conduit between the central exchange and particular localities.

Appendix

MAY 1 1 1981

Glossary

Arbitration: A dispute settlement technique that involves a third-party arbitrator whose judgement is accepted as the basis for the settlement.

Bargaining/Negotiation: A dispute settlement with face-to-face interaction of the antagonists, who win gains and make concessions to achieve agreement.

Behavioral violence: Violence resulting from overt conflict and societal deviance, like wars, mob violence, random street crime, and police brutality.

Civilian defense: A national defense strategy based on civilian unarmed resistance to an invading or occupying force.

Communication facilitation: A third-party intervention technique in which channels of constructive communication are opened between antagonists, distorted or inaccurate information is minimized, and possibilities for conciliation are enhanced.

Deterrence: A process by which threat and counterthreat by antagonists to do injury to each other deters both from doing so. Reciprocity and credibility are basic ingredients of the process.

Empowerment: A dispute settlement technique involving the introduction of third parties who help weaker parties to strengthen themselves sufficiently to bargain effectively with opponents and bring about changes in intolerable situations.

Escalatory Spiral: A dynamic of conflict that has each party responding to a hostile act from the other with an even more hostile one.

Interposition: The placement of third-party actors between disputants or their territories to moderate or terminate their conflict.

Mediation: Introduction of a third party into a dispute who acts as an intermediary and brings the conflicting parties together in bargaining or some other form of negotiation.

Negative-sum conflict: A conflict in which each antagonist loses more than he gains in the conflict. The result is that both are worse off than they were before the conflict.

Nonviolent action: The application of nonviolent resistance or protest techniques focused at a particular problem, injustice, or attack. Such techniques range from strikes to civil disobedience.

Positive-sum conflict: A conflict in which each antagonist, through settlement, gains more than he loses. A game in which each player wins, though not necessarily in equal degrees.

Paul Wehr, *Conflict Regulation:* Westview Press, Inc., Boulder, Colo. (1979) pp. 205-6.

Priorities for Peace and Security Education

The most urgent current problem today is the increasing probability of a nuclear world war. The probability is increasing for a number of international political reasons but also, and perhaps mainly, because military technology is making available new nuclear weapons which are useless for nuclear deterrence but which give rise to perceptions that a nuclear war may be "fightable and winnable."

International relations will become increasingly affected by the energy crisis. A shortage of energy supplies in the next 20 or 30 years will mean very low economic growth, resulting in high inflation and unemployment. This will lead to political and social turmoil in the rich countries (the recent riots in the British city of Bristol may be a foretaste of this turmoil) and worsening poverty in the poor countries (as the poverty gap widens North-South tension will grow and may soon be a greater threat to world security than East-West tension). These are the precise conditions under which countries are likely to resort to military action.

The new nuclear weapons being developed by military scientists include very accurate and reliable ballistic missiles with warheads that can be aimed at smaller and, therefore, many more military targets than in the past. In other words, the day is coming when one country might hope to destroy its enemy's nuclear retaliatory capability by striking first. The more the USA and the USSR move towards nuclear-war fighting strategies and away from nuclear deterrence strategies the more likely is a nuclear world war.

This is not to suggest that a direct nuclear attack by one superpower on the other is a likely way in which such a war would begin, although the danger of its starting by accident or miscalculation is ever present. The escalation of a regional conflict to a general nuclear war is more likely. A local conflict in, say, a Third World region like the Middle East might begin as a conventional war and then escalate to a limited nuclear war, using the nuclear weapons of the local powers. This could in turn escalate to a general nuclear war involving the superpowers, especially if the superpowers supplied the conventional weapons for the original conflict. And that is why both the international arms trade, now totally out of control, and nuclear weapons proliferation are so dangerous.

A nuclear world war would be a catastrophe of unimaginable proportions. All the major cities in the Northern Hemisphere, where most nuclear warheads are aimed, would be destroyed. Most of the urban population there would be killed by blast and fire, the rural population by radiation. Many millions of people in the Southern Hemisphere would be killed by radiation from fallout. And the disaster would not end even there. The unpredictable long-term effects might well include changes in the global climate, severe genetic damage and depletion of the ozone layer that protects life on earth from excessive ultraviolet radiation. No scientist can convincingly assure us that human life would survive a nuclear world war.

For these reasons I believe that the priorities in a peace and security education programme should be to deal with:

- **The Soviet-American nuclear arms race**
- **The international arms trade**
- **Nuclear-weapon proliferation**
- **The deterioration in international relations**
- **Efforts to control the nuclear arms race, nuclear-weapon proliferation, and other armaments to achieve disarmament.**

After these most urgent problems, one should turn to other issues such as the causes of conflict, the theory of international relations, models of a less violent world, etc.

But if we are to avoid a nuclear world war it will, in my opinion, have to be by using the traditional methods of international negotiations. The main, perhaps the only, hope for the future is that the public will learn the facts in time and that an aroused public opinion will force reluctant politicans to stop the arms race and reduce armaments. I am convinced that political leaders, left to themselves, will not be able to prevent a nuclear holocaust however sincerely they may wish to do so. I am equally convinced that if the public knew the truth about the nuclear arms race, it would insist on action by its political leaders.

I would, therefore, emphasize the need to educate the public in the dangers of uncontrolled armaments and military technology. The use of the mass media to this end should itself be a subject for peace education.

Frank Barnaby, *Director, Stockholm International Peace Research Institute. (1980) Unpublished.*

No Limits to Learning: The World Problematique as a Human Challenge

Learning, as we shall use the term, has to be understood in a broad sense that goes beyond what conventional terms like education and schooling imply. For us, learning means an approach, both to knowledge and to life, that emphasizes human initiative. It encompasses the acquisition and practice of new methodologies, new skills, new attitudes, and new values necessary to live in a world of change. Learning is the process of preparing to deal with new situations. It may occur consciously, or often unconsciously, usually from experiencing real-life situations, although simulated or imagined situations can also induce learning. Practically every individual in the world, whether schooled or not, experiences the process of learning—and probably none of us at present are learning at the levels, intensities, and speeds needed to cope with the complexities of modern life.

. . .

The fact that inadequate contemporary learning contributes to the deteriorating human condition and a widening of the human gap cannot be ignored. Learning processes are lagging appallingly behind and are leaving both individuals and societies unprepared to meet the challenges posed by global issues. This failure of learning means that human preparedness remains underdeveloped on a worldwide scale. Learning is in this sense far more than just another global problem: its failure represents, in a fundamental way, the issue of issues in that it limits our capacity to deal with every other issue in the global problematique. These limitations are neither fixed nor absolute. Human potential is being artificially constrained and vastly underutilized—so much so that for all practical purposes there appear to be virtually no limits to learning.

. . .

Serious doubt must be raised as to whether conventional human learning processes are still adequate today. Traditionally, societies and individuals have adopted a pattern of continuous *maintenance learning* interrupted by short periods of innovation stimulated

largely by the shock of external events. Maintenance learning is the acquisition of fixed outlooks, methods, and rules for dealing with known and recurring situations. It enhances our problem-solving ability for problems that are given. It is the type of learning designed to maintain an existing system or an established way of life. Maintenance learning is, and will continue to be, indispensable to the functioning and stability of every society.

But for long-term survival, particularly in times of turbulence, change, or discontinuity, another type of learning is even more essential. It is the type of learning that can bring change, renewal, restructuring, and problem reformulation—and which we shall call *innovative learning*.

. . .

Because global issues can have unusually long lead times, and because maintenance learning has unfortunately long lag times an important risk and cost of discouraging innovative learning is that indispensable options may not be available at the time they are needed.

. . .

Moreover, because the global problematique affects all four and a half billion people grouped into more than 150 nation states and territories whose boundaries cut across a much higher number of cultures, it demands a type of learning that emphasizes value-creating more than value-conserving. The search for a global consensus on certain key values should not undermine the vital diversity of cultures and their corresponding value systems. At the same time, recognizing the claims of other cultures to their own identity also entails the necessity of encouraging joint responsibility for the solution of global problems.

James Botkin (U.S.), Mahdi Elmandjra (Morocco), Mircea Malitza (Romania), *No Limits to Learning: A Report to the Club of Rome:* Pergamon Press; U.K., U.S.A., Canada, Autralia, France, Federal Republic of Germany (1979). pp. 8-11.

Learning How to Make Peace

Peacemaking is learned, as is most other human behavior. We learn it in connection with (1) bringing about purposive social change within societies; and (2) regulating the normal limited conflict within and between those same societies. In the former instance it appears as nonviolent action, while in the latter it occurs as conflict resolution or dispute settlement. But *how* do we learn it?

Nonviolence. A nonviolent social movement emerges in response to certain historical conditions. This social innovation produces methods which enter the human knowledge pool and are transmitted to other social settings and times. Gandhian nonviolence, for example, was invented in South Africa, expanded and refined in India, and is now used there, a half-century later, by the Shanti Sena to train thousands of community peacemakers. Shanti Seniks are trained in leadership skills, crisis and conflict management, village organization and development, even meditation. Gandhian methods have spread further still as civil rights activists, Chicano farmworkers, and antiwar protestors in the U.S. have developed variants of them to fit new conditions.

Under German occupation from 1940-45, the Norwegians invented effective nonviolent resistance to nazification. Through a clandestine communication network of couriers, broadcasting, underground newspapers, and the postal service, Norwegians were led to refuse cooperation with Nazi authorities. Massive noncooperation by all segments of society, from teachers to athletes, thwarted attempts to bring Norway into the Third Reich. Much of what we have learned from the Norwegian experience is now being used by peace researchers to design strategies for nonmilitary national defense. Sweden's defense policy already relies partially on trained civilian resistance.

While nonviolence is usually thought of as a tool for social change, it is also a form of conflict regulation. Nonviolent actionists know how to keep conflict within bounds, causing minimal injury to others and maximizing the possibility for reconciliation.

Conflict regulation. Just as nonviolence is transmitted across national and cultural boundaries, so does learning how to regulate conflict move between levels and sectors of society. In the United States, negotiation and mediation were developed initially to decrease labor strife. These methods have since been modified for use in community disputes, environmental conflict, and family controversy. A program in New York trains public officials in conflict management. A team in Denver intervenes in commercial, family and offender/victim disputes. A third group trains environmental mediators in Seattle and a fourth teaches Colorado mountain communities how to build policy consensus concerning future energy impacts. Through the National Dispute Settlement Act of 1980, the U.S. government will establish community training programs throughout the nation. Furthermore, it is considering establishing a National Academy of Peace and Conflict Resolution. These developments represent a broader trend in the nation and the world toward formalizing peacemaking as a skill.

Knowledge-building in nonviolence and conflict regulation are not separate developments. One often stimulates the other. Civil rights and anti-war nonviolence in the 1960s, for example, called forth government initiatives in community conciliation. What was consequently learned about dispute settlement and crisis management is now shared by hundreds of communities.

Some of peacemaking is invention, but much of it is the enhancement of existing conflict management capabilities. Families, for instance, manage conflict with threat, reward, punishment, physical separation, negotiation, communication. Specialists can help families to use these methods and others more effectively, and to expand their peacemaking repertoires. Communities are learning to use more skillfully those methods already available such as the courts, mediation and referendums. They also learn new methods such as involving all to be directly influenced by a policy, in the decision whether and how to proceed with it.

Peacemaking is growing in both theory and method. To be learned properly, it must be tested in practice, disseminated through literature, and used. As armed force becomes ever more dysfunctional, peacemaking at all levels will grow in influence and currency.

Paul Wehr, University of Colorado. (1980) Unpublished.

Ghent's lesson:

Time the best— and final— negotiator

By Thomas B. Adams

The treaty of Ghent, signed on Christmas Eve 1814, completed one of the most successful negotiations in American history. Yet it achieved no result but to end a war and leave unsettled all the questions the war had been fought about. It went even a little further. It opened to future question matters that had been presumed settled years before. Its triumph was to refer all disputes to time, the final negotiator, whose decision a vigorous and independent people could safely trust.

It proved that distrust, dislike and bad manners are no bar to a successful working arrangement. If there is common interest in getting on together and each party respects the power of the other to act for or against that interest, the apparently impossible can be accomplished. The sullen peace agreed to in the Netherlands between Britain and the United States has now lasted 165 years.

Confidence building: a task of international policy

The term "confidence' refers primarily to the sector of human relations. In psychology, socio-psychology and sociology it is used to describe social situations. Confidence has a great deal to do with knowledge, mutual information and the calculability of behaviour. Relations based on confidence are the more stable and calculable, the greater the amount of mutual information.

This definition helps to understand confidence building as a task of international politics and of intergovernmental relations. Here, too, confidence building is largely an information and communication problem. It is concerned with States furnishing each other with more information on their own behaviour so as to make it more transparent and predictable for the other side.

Diplomatic relations, economic and trade links, exchanges of press organs and other international contacts have always been a significant factor in confidence building between States. The process of French-German reconciliation, for instance, was accompanied by a number of confidence-building measures in the non-military field.

The only way to enhance confidence is to enable Governments sufficiently to foresee and assess, on the basis of the information available to them, the actions and reactions of other Governments in their respective political environments. In other words, the degree of confidence depends primarily on the frankness and transparency with which States are prepared to conduct their political and military affairs.

There can be no disarmament without confidence and no confidence without security.

It is true that confidence-building issues and negotiations on measures designed to enhance confidence play an increasingly important role in disarmament. Negotiations on arms control and disarmament are shifting increasingly to the CBM sector.

Confidence building measures— a prerequisite for arms control

Prompted by resolution 33/91B, which was introduced by the Federal Republic of Germany, negotiations on confidence-building measures have been underway in the United Nations (in the General Assembly and the Committee on Disarmament) since 1979.

The Soviet Union, which had initially kept in the background, shows increasing willingness now to talk about confidence-building measures (it voted in favour of resolution 33/91B). Yet it should be noted that the Soviet Union has a broader concept of CBMs than the West (cf. Brezhnev's speech of 2 March 1979 in Moscow).

The communique issued at the conclusion of the meeting on 14 and 15 May 1979 of the Committee of Foreign Ministers of the Warsaw Pact States proposed a conference on CMBs in the military and armament fields.

France proposed a European disarmament conference, to be devoted in its first phase to confidence-building measures.

. . .

There can be no disarmament without confidence and no confidence without security. Confidence thus continues to be the fundamental prerequisite for all efforts to achieve arms control. But arms control, in turn, creates the confidence required to bring about disarmament.

In view of the difficulties obstructing rapid progress towards arms control and disarmament, Federal Chancellor Schmidt, speaking on behalf of other Heads of Government at the special session on disarmament in 1978, considered an offensive of confidence building to be both necessary and fruitful.

There are two explanations for this positive assessment of CBMs:

Despite intensive arms control and disarmament efforts at bilateral, regional and multilateral (UN) levels, the arms race continues undiminished. The aim of these negotiations—to halt the arms race—is unattainable at the present time. Confidence building measures thus serve as a first step on the way to this final goal.

CBMs are a precondition for effective arms control and disarmament. They serve as a catalyst in bringing about this final goal.

German Association for the United Nations. (1979) Translated from German.

Such an intelligent solution to human difficulties seemed unlikely, probably impossible, even as it was accomplished. The proclaimed reason for going to war in 1812 was to protect free trade and seamen's rights. This was mostly hokum. The only section of the country that cared anything about seamen's rights was New England. And it was perfectly willing to forget about those rights because it was making so much money as a neutral, trading with both sides in the wars of Napoleon. The hawks in Congress were westerners and southerners who wanted to take over the remaining territory in North America still belonging to the Indians or the British.

It was their cheerful notion that Canadian resistance would crumble before an army of old men and boys. As for the British navy, ships cannot sail on land and the fleet of shallow draft gunboats built in Jefferson's administration—a much appreciated distribution of pork to politically important congressional districts—would protect the rivers and harbors. Unfortunately the gunboats sank, quite often even before the enemy got a chance to shoot at them. The ranks of the army could not be filled because men would not enlist. The credit of the government collapsed because the citizens would not subscribe to loans. The militia ran away. And after just two months of war the army that was supposed to conquer Canada had surrendered and the northern frontier was wide open to invasion.

Only the Navy, or what was left of it after the neglect that followed the Administrations of Washington and Adams, saved the United States. The frigate *Constitution* shattered the tradition of British sovereignty of the seas. Naval officers Perry on Lake Erie and MacDonough on Lake Champlain built fleets and fought them so successfully as to deter the British advance.

But when the peace commissioners began their talks, the situation could hardly have been worse. A British fleet was marauding in Chesapeake Bay. The White House was being burned by a British landing party. President Madison was hiding in the woods of Virginia. The most powerful army ever to invade America was marching down the western shore of Lake Champlain. And an armada was assembling at Jamaica to capture New Orleans.

British arrogance ran out of bounds. *The Times* wrote, "Having disposed of all our enemies in Europe let us have no cant of moderation, no peace with James Madison. We shall demand indemnity. We shall insist on security for Canada. There is no public feeling in the country stronger than that of indignation against the Americans—conduct so base, so loathsome, so hateful. With Madison and his perjured set no treaty can be made, for no oath can bind them."

At the first meeting of the negotiators it was evident they had nothing to talk about. The British were forbidden by their instructions to discuss the impressment of seamen. The Americans were forbidden to discuss anything else unless impressment was conceded in advance. The British made clear that they expected the cession of territory; at least half of Maine, Vermont and New Hampshire and so westward, with the sole right to maintain a navy on the Great Lakes!

The position of Commissioner J. Adams was peculiarly difficult, as representing New England, which was agitating secession from the United States. Fortunately he did not know that the governor of Massachusetts was actually engaged in talks with the enemy. But Commissioner Henry Clay made the assumption of treason and was quite ready to trade off New England for concessions in the West. Tension between the two men was personal as well as sectional, for puritan J. Q., as he lit his fire in the dark before dawn, was troubled to hear genial Harry staggering up to bed after a night of poker and whiskey.

But the poker had its uses. When even steady Albert Gallatin was ready to pack up and go home, the gambler assured his fellows that the British were only bluffing, "playing the game of brag." It turned out he was right. News came to the British Cabinet that its expedition down Lake Champlain had turned back because of MacDonough's extraordinary feat of sinking the British ships. And the Duke of Wellington, offered the command in America, turned it down, "That which appears to me to be wanting in America is not a general, but a naval superiority on the Lakes."

Suddenly all the pieces fell in place. The British dropped their extravagant demands. The Madison Administration, eager to save anything from the wreck of its mismanaged war, was ready to settle for the status ante bellum. A treaty was written omitting everything that had caused the dispute. But it set up a method by which later commissions might discuss problems into an indefinite future. Adams wrote in his diary on Christmas Eve, I cannot close the record of this day without an humble offering to God for the conclusion to which it has pleased him to bring the negotiations for peace at this place, and a fervent prayer that its results may be propitious to the welfare, the best interests, and the union of my country."

A treaty was written omitting everything that had caused the dispute.

The prayer has been answered affirmatively. Acceptable relations with Britain survived even the shock of the Civil War. Gradually they became cooperation and alliance. A similar wisdom may guide the U.S. Senate to ratification of the second Strategic Arms Limitation Treaty with Russia. The principle is the same—continued future discussion. The common interest exists. It is essential for the two superpowers to stop threatening each other. The real danger to world peace is of the proliferation of nuclear weapons among numerous unstable nations. Final settlement of all points that may come under dispute is never possible. They are best left to time, the final negotiator.

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Canada/U.S.: Living with Disarmament

The world's longest unarmed boundary, that between the United States and Canada, provides more than a century and a half of illustrations of the potential for peaceful settlement of disputes. Although generally dated from the Rush-Bagot agreement of 1817 which demilitarized the Great Lakes in the aftermath of North America's segment of the Napoleonic Wars, the presently existing open border is more truly the result of an evolutionary process confirmed in the Treaty of Washington in 1871. That agreement, encompassing the settlement of several contemporary disputes between the two countries, effectively extended the recognition of a demilitarized border across the entire continent.

Nevertheless, relations between the United States and Canada have not been free of crises, with occasional isolated conflicts and questions of notable significance. Nor should it be forgotten that during most of the years in which this open frontier developed, Great Britain managed Canada's foreign relations. Viewing Canada as one of the jewels of the Empire, Britain defended interests there that were intimately involved with her global policies. Consequently, until Canada assumed complete control of its own foreign affairs in 1931, this area was the meeting place of two major powers, not a region where the United States could utilize its power to browbeat a smaller neighbor into acquiescence.

In the golden age of young America's pursuit of its "manifest destiny," greedy eyes viewed Canada as a natural and enticing area for conquest. Serious tension developed with the famed incident of the *Caroline*, a U.S. Great Lakes steamer which had run rebels into Ontario in 1837. Notable restraint was used on the American side by President Van Buren despite the chauvinistic conduct of the British Foreign Secretary, Palmerston. Compounding the problems of the moment was the disputed northeastern boundary of Maine which briefly erupted into a local conflict called the Aroostook War. Through arbitration of King William of Holland—whose decisions were rejected by the U.S. Congress—the confrontation was nevertheless peacefully settled by negotiation of the Webster-Ashburton Treaty in 1842.

With westward expansion across the continent to the Pacific, subsequent disputes broke out over the vast region known as the Oregon Territory, and ultimately over the boundary between Alaska and Canada. The intensity of feeling in the Oregon question is illustrated by the jingoistic slogan "54°40′ or Fight" in the presidential election of 1844. In this instance, England ultimately determined that, valuable though the Oregon region was, it did not merit settlement by war. Hence the bitter quarrel was solved by agreement on a compromise border between the two extreme positions and incorporated in the Oregon Treaty of 1846.

In the 1890s, when vast gold reserves began to be exploited in the Klondike region of western Canada, control of access to the area lay through the Lynn Canal of the Alaskan panhandle. The boundary of the area, left inadvertently imprecise in the terms of the Alaska Purchase, made sovereignty over the waterway unclear. With the risk of clashes between the miners who were exploiting the area, both Canada and the U.S. feared a conflict could arise over the boundary's definition. Despite the enormous economic gains to be made from the area and with drastically conflicting claims, an Alaska Boundary Tribunal which met in London in 1903 concluded an agreement closing the dispute.

In fact, were one merely to list the potential for conflict that has been present in many questions that have arisen between the U.S. and Canada since 1817, the cases would be numerous—some of them famed and impassioned. Critical economic issues such as the fisheries of Newfoundland and British Columbia and national security cooperation demonstrated by the common defense system of the DEW line illustrate how much has been resolved at the negotiating table. Symbolic and significant to the economy of both countries today is the St. Lawrence Seaway, the result of many more years of consultation than of actual construction.

Ben Brown (in association with the Institute for Research in History, N.Y.) (1980) Unpublished.

Uruguay: A negotiated resolution of conflict

Very strategically situated to control the estuary of the River Plate, the South American nation of Uruguay is the result of civil and international conflict resolved from without by the creation of a buffer state. In the former colonial regions of Spain, independence movements spread widely in the wake of Spain's invasion and defeat by France in the Napoleonic Wars. In the extensive area of the Viceroyalty of Rio de la Plata, the region known as the *banda oriental*, (east shore) was administered from Buenos Aires, even after the area declared its independence in 1810.

The *banda oriental*, however, bordered on the north and east with Portugal's one enormous New World colony of Brazil. Consequently, the region was natural prey in the chaotic struggles that developed with the wars of independence and even with the momentary transfer of the Portuguese monarchy to Rio de Janeiro. In what is now Uruguay, armed insurrection broke out in 1811 which was exploited by Brazil on the one hand and the embryonic Argentine government on the other. First, Buenos Aires, seeing the danger to its security, attempted to quell the uprising and eventually succeeded in 1816. Resenting their defeat, the inhabitants of the region were not wholly averse to accomodation with Brazilian-Portuguese forces, but when the latter moved in during 1817, the *banda* was in effect a conquered region once more.

The decade that followed is a story of conflict at virtually all levels of society in the region. Sparsely inhabited as the *banda* was at the time, its potential for resources had begun to be known and, under any circumstances, its location on the vital communications artery of the entrance to the Plate could not permit the persistence of conflict.

Most simply stated, the condition of the *banda oriental* was that of stalemate from 1811 to 1828. Neither Argentina nor Brazil was strong enough to expel the other, and the local population was

too weak to oppose either effectively over a long period of time. Had mediation not come, this situation would doubtless have been concluded only with the exhaustion of one of the belligerents.

Instead, Great Britain, already involved in previous years with negotiations over Spain's insurgent colonies, came forward in 1826 with an attempt to resolve the dispute. Lord John Ponsonby was sent by Canning from London and, after two years of negotiation, was able to bring Argentina and Brazil to the peace table. The Treaty of Rio de Janeiro that they signed in August 1828 provided that both countries would refrain from interfering in the region of the *banda* which was to be established as the independent nation of Uruguay. Even though the treaty did not clearly define Uruguay's boundaries, that question was settled subsequently without untoward difficulty.

Given the internal difficulties which characterize much of Uruguayan history, one may not conclude that the initial peaceful discussion resolved that nation's later problems. Also, Britain's commercial interests in the region, being threatened by the continued hostilities, hardly set herself wholly altruistic goals in working for the creation of Uruguay. And Argentina, for its part, needed peace there to settle problems with rebellious provinces elsewhere. Nevertheless, the end result of fifteen years of stalemated warfare was the creation of a state whose existence, guaranteed by Argentina and Brazil, has contributed greatly to the avoidance of major conflict between the largest nations in South America.

Ben Brown, (in association with the Institute for Research in History, N.Y.) (1980)

Security Policy Impact on Related Values

National Security Policy Model

- Global peacemaking for nonterritorial defense
- Civilian resistance
- Global peacekeeping
- Minimal deterrent
- Mutual assured destruction
- War-fighting capability

VALUES		VALUES
equity		inequity
decentralization		centralization of destructive power
democratic		hierarchical, repressive
many actors		few actors
justice		control
economically rational		economically wasteful
ecological balance		ecological imbalance
long-range view		short-range view
solidarity with all nations and future generations		no solidarity
cooperative		conflictual
harmony between means and ends		means destroy professed ends

Robert Johansen, *"Toward an Alternative Security System,"* Institute for World Order, (1980). Unpublished.

Competing Priorities

A growing proportion of the world's annual product passes through government hands. Central governments now spend 30 to 40 percent of the GNP.

The process of collecting revenues and using public funds represents a continuing struggle among claimants for the resources available. To referee the proceedings, the constant watchful eye of the conscientious citizen is essential—both to curb excesses of spending and to ensure that choices among alternatives are in the broad public interest. How the resources are allocated will determine in many ways the speed and direction in which a nation moves, the values it cherishes in common, how much security it has within, how much harmony with its neighbors. The use of public funds in a large sense represents the priorities of the nation; it also affects the kind of life each of us, especially the poorest and weakest among us, will have a chance to live.

Of all the functions of government, however, the most difficult for the public to assess is military power, often the single largest element in national budgets. Isolated from view by the complexities of modern technology, and often by deliberate official policy, this significant part of the public budget has been left to the control of a comparatively small band of specialists. Yet the requirements of military security cannot effectively be judged in isolation, or by specialists alone. Military adequacy is always relative, subject to factors, international and domestic, far beyond the military sphere. Specialists who judge military needs may too readily see threats and their solutions only in narrow military terms. For politicians, the final arbiters, the military budget is often the easy way out.

A review of the world's use of public funds in the 1970's does, in fact, raise troubling questions about the perspectives which governments have been bringing to the allocation process. Judged by a variety of measures of national and global welfare, budget priorities show a persistent slant toward military strength, to the neglect of other factors—economic, social, and political—that are equally vital in protecting society's well-being and its security.

...

Military vs other budgets

The relative distribution of those categories of public expenditures...has not changed appreciably in recent years although there has been an enormous growth in the number of people requiring such social services as education and health care.

An essential difference between military budgets and budgets for health and education is that the latter are directly related to rising population requirements. The military budget presumably is not, i.e. the military threat to a nation does not necessarily grow as its population grows. Yet military budgets show an ability to ride out inflation, climbing faster than the price level, while social budgets find it difficult to keep up with both price and population pressures. The bare figures make striking statements about the priorities implicit in these budgets:

•On a global basis, society now invests $16,000 a year per soldier, $260 a year in the education of a school-age child.

•Developing nations carry three times as much insurance against military attack as against all the health problems that strike people on a day-to-day basis.

•World-wide, the support of national military forces costs $92 a year per person; support of the United Nations and all its programs in food, health, labor, etc., 57¢ a year; international peace-keeping operations, 5¢ a year.

Military expenditures vs economic aid

The increasing interdependence of nations, whether developed or developing, endowed with raw materials or with technology, rich or poor, has been one of the most empathic lessons of the latter half of the 20th century. Economic development, growth on a broad front, is a boon to the whole community of nations. Assistance to economies in need may be returned many times over in enlarged markets, needed raw materials, a mutual stake in peaceful coexistence.

Nevertheless,...much more of the public money has gone to the build-up of military force than to the build-up of underdeveloped economies.

•Military expenditures of developed nations rose by $200 billion between 1960 and 1977, their foreign economic assistance by $10 billion. In 1977 their military expenditures were 20 times larger than their development assistance.

•The foreign aid extended by the developed nations averaged out to $4.50 a year for each person in the developing nations.

•Both superpowers have a poor record in foreign aid—compared with military resources. The USSR was the lowest of all aid-givers in relation to its high rate of military spending.

Ruth Leger Sivard, *World Military and Social Expenditures: 1979* World Priorities, Box 1003, Leesburg, Virginia 22075, U.S.A. p. 16.

On a global basis, society now invests $16,000 a year per soldier, $260 a year in the education of a school-age child.

Rank order of aid contributor

No country devotes as much to foreign aid as the United States. In 1979, its net disbursements to developing countries totaled $4.567 billion. West Germany was No. 2 with $3.378 billion; followed by France, $3.358 billion, Japan, $2.638 billion; and the United Kingdom, $2.067 billion.

But on the scale adopted by the Development Assistance Committee (DAC)—the 17 big countries that pass out foreign aid—the United States dropped to 15th place. The DAC ranks on the basis of percentage of gross national product devoted to development aid.

Official Development Assistance (ODA) from the United States in 1979 was about $1 billion less than in 1978, a 19% decrease. Other DAC members' ODA went up $3.5 billion, a 26% increase.

Official U.S. development assistance, generally referred to as U.S. foreign economic aid, consists almost wholly of assistance provided by AID, Food for Peace, the Peace Corps, and

The Impact of Military Spending on Jobs

First, while military spending creates jobs, almost any alternative use of the same money would create even more jobs. The job creating potential of the military budget cannot be examined in isolation. Military spending has an opportunity cost: To put it simply, every $1 billion that is spent by the military is $1 billion not spent on equipment and research. The employment that military spending generates must be compared with the employment that would occur if the money were spent in some alternative fashion.

There is a growing body of research exploring the opportunity costs of military spending. I would like to mention some examples of this research.

• Roger Bezdek, then an economist with the U.S. Department of Commerce, published a study in 1975 that traced the effects over five years of three different levels of military spending. One was a normal increase in the defense budget assuming a high employment economy, the second was a 30 per cent increase along with a tax rise of equal amount, and the third was a 30 per cent cut in military spending and an accompanying tax reduction. Employment and net output was 2.1 per cent higher with the defense budget cut than with normal growth; employment and net output were 1.3 per cent lower with the highest military budget than with normal growth.

• Chase Econometrics, under a contract from the Rockwell International Corporation, performed an econometric analysis of the economic impact of spending money on the B-1 bomber program: Using a large and sophisticated model of the economy, Chase compared the effects of the B-1 expenditures with a tax cut and a public housing program of equal dollar amounts. Both the tax cut and the housing program produced more jobs than the B-1 program. Over five years the tax cut yielded 30,000 more jobs and the housing program 70,000 more jobs than the B-1.

• The United States Bureau of Labor Statistics has studied the effect of public expenditures on employment. Taking labor requirements and productivity growth into account, the BLS calculated manpower factors for different categories of federal expenditures, both by industry and by occupation. (Manpower factors are the number of jobs that would be created throughout the economy by a given dollar expenditure in a particular program.) Using data from 1972, and adjusting for productivity changes, the BLS estimated that, for Fiscal Year 1974, each billion dollars of defense purchases would create 72,857 jobs, almost 33,000 in the military itself. The other main area the BLS studied was education revenue sharing. The BLS estimated that each billion dollars in education revenue sharing would create 114,026 jobs.

• Marion Anderson, now of the Employment Research Associates in Lansing, Michigan, has also studied the employment effects of military spending. Anderson, building on a model created by Professor Bruce Russett of Yale University and working with data for the 1970-74 period, has estimated that every billion dollars spent in the military sector resulted in a net loss of 14,000 jobs as compared with spending the billion dollars in the private sector, and a net loss of 30,000 jobs as compared with spending the money in the state and local government sector. Anderson estimated that 907,000 jobs were lost in the economy as a whole between 1970 and 1974.

• In a study of the Philadelphia area, Professor Norman Glickman of the University of Pennsylvania, using an econometric model similar to the ones used by Bezdek and Chase Econometrics, estimated that a cut in regional military spending of $100 million, accompanied by an increase in revenue sharing funds of $100 million, would result in an increase of regional employment by more than 10,000 jobs, and a rise in output of some $70 million. If the cut in military spending were not accompanied by compensating payments, employment would fall by more than 13,000.

The results of these studies illustrate a fundamental point. A rise in military spending would create jobs but significantly more jobs would be created if the money were spent elsewhere. A fall in military spending by itself would result in a loss of jobs but if the cut in military spending were offset by a tax reduction or an increase in revenue sharing, or by an increase in government spending in other areas, then the net effect would be an increase in the number of jobs.

David Gold, Director. Testimony before the Group of Governmental Experts on the Relationship between Disarmament and Development of the U.N., Council on Economic Priorities, New York (1979).

contributions to the international financial institutions, such as the World Bank. By definition ODA is the transfer of resources to other countries to promote the welfare and economic development of recipient countries and their people. These transfers are made on a grant basis or in long term, low interest loans and credits. The rankings of DAC nations:

Country	1979 Rank	1979 ODA % of GNP	1978 Rank	1978 ODA % of GNP
Sweden	1	.94	1-2	.90
Norway	2-3	.93	1-2	.90
Netherlands	2-3	.93	3	.82
Denmark	4	.75	4	.75
France	5	.59	5	.57
Belgium	6	.56	6	.55
Australia	7-8	.52	7	.54
United Kingdom	7-8	.52	9	.48
Canada	9	.47	8	.52
Germany (West)	10	.44	10	.38
New Zealand	11	.30	11	.34
Japan	12	.26	14	.23
Finland	13	.22	16	.17
Switzerland	14	.21	15	.20
Austria	15-16	.19	12	.29
United States	15-16	.19	13	.27
Italy	17	.10	17	.07

"World Development Letter", Agency for International Development; Office of Public Affairs, Washington, D.C.; Vol. 3, No. 14 (July 14, 1980)

Possible Products for Converted Military Industrial Capacity

The following list is presented in order to indicate the range of conversion options available. It is almost certainly not a comprehensive list. Further, not all the products listed, some specifically and some generally, would be either immediately commercially viable or directly relevant to the needs of LDCs. Sections 5 and 6 of the report discuss various criteria which might be used to select among them. To identify the industries which, after conversion, might take up the options listed, the following abbreviations are used:

Ae: Aeroengines;
Ai: Airframes (including missiles);
E: Electronics;
S: Shipbuilding; and
T: Tanks and other vehicles.

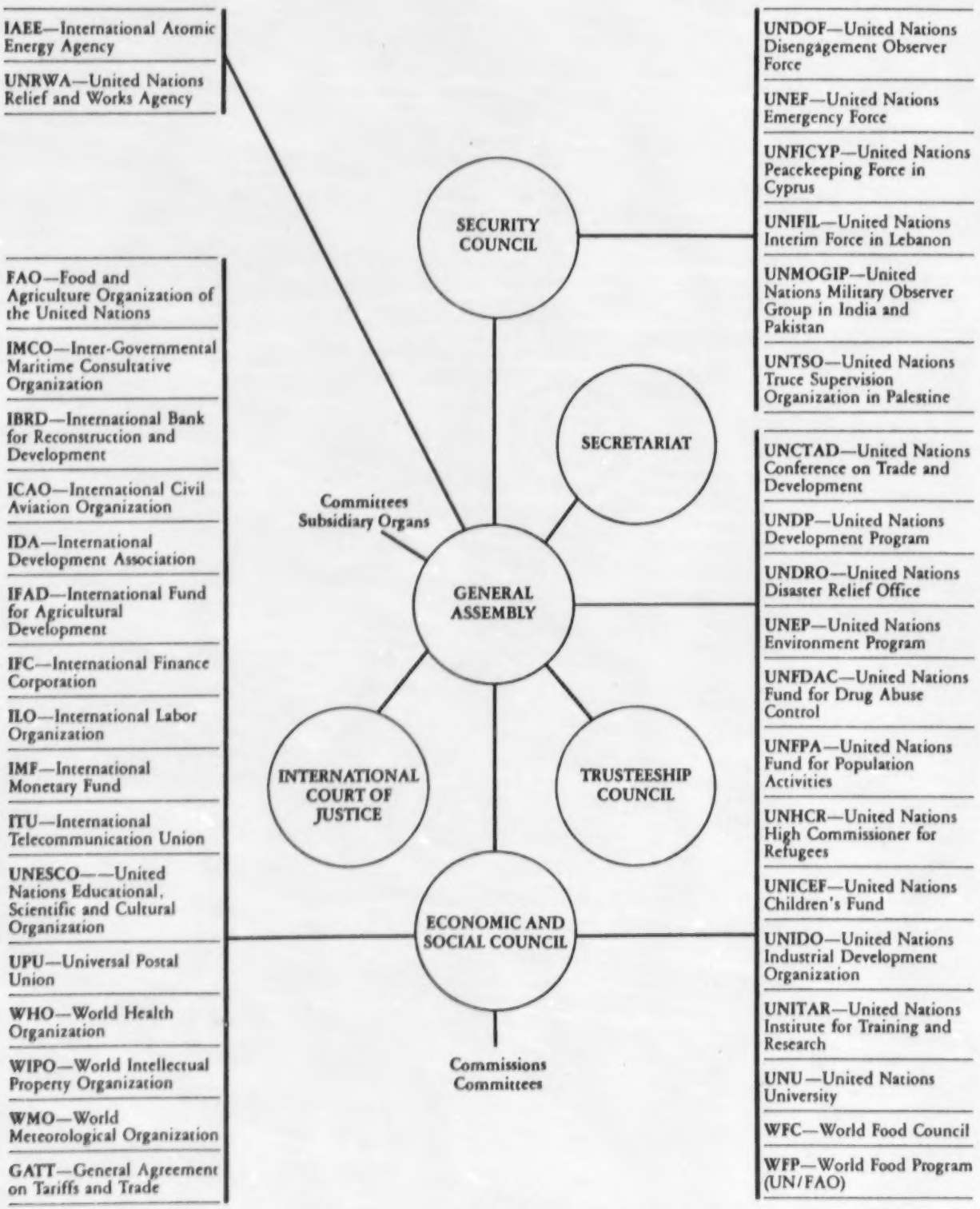
Agriculture	
Machinery and equipment	Ai/S
Pumping plant and pipeline for irrigation	S/T
Sugar beet crushers	S
Construction	
Industrial soundproofing	Ai
Machinery and equipment	S
Pre-fabricated bridges for disaster relief	S
Pre-fabricated parts for all kinds of buildings and structures	Ai
Ecological	
Anti-pollution devices	S
Processing plants	Ai/E
Recycling machinery and plant	Ai/S
Energy	
Adaptable power units for community energy systems	E
Boilers for power stations	S
Condensers and evaporators for oceanic thermal energy	S
Fuel-cell power plant	E
Heat exchangers	E/S
Heat pumps	E/T
Integrated energy systems	Ai/E
Nuclear material disposal	Ai
Oilfield machinery and equipment	S
Oil spillage pumps	T
Power packs for oil pumping	E
Standby power units for computer industry	E
Submerged oil production systems	S
Tidal barrage systems	S/T
Wave power systems	S/T
Windmills	Ai/E/T
Industrial machinery and equipment	
Advanced machine tools	Ai/E
Ball screws and other precision components	E
Blowers and fans	E/S
Fluidised bed boilers	S/T
Industrial process furnaces and ovens	S
Machinery for: food products, textiles, woodworking, paper industries, printing industries, marine agriculture and other specialised uses	S
Mechanical power transmission equipment	S
Pumps and compressors	S
Quality control test facilities	Ai
Marine technologies (in addition to those listed elsewhere)	
Submersibles and other equipment for marine mineral exploitation and agriculture	Ai/E/S/T
Tanks for fish farming	S
Medical	
Decompression chambers	S
Electronics for intensive care and medical analysis	E/T
Equipment for the blind	E
Medical mass screening systems	T
Pacemakers	E
Personalised equipment for disabled	E
Renal dialysis machinery	E
Surgical heat exchangers	E
Metalworking	
Castings and engravings	S
Containers	Ai/S
Fabricated metal products	S
Iron and steel forgings	S
Machine tool accessories	S
Machinery for metal cutting/forming	S
Sheet metal work	Ai/S
Special dies, tools and jigs	S
Offices and service industries	
Automated stockholding and issuing systems	E/S
Automated merchandising equip.	S
Commercial laundry machines	Ai/S
Electronic office equipment	E
Office and other metal and wood furniture	S
Refrigerators and air-conditioners	Ai/E/S
Transport	
Air safety, air traffic control systems	E
Automatic speed/distance warning and braking systems	E
Canal gates and heavy duty pumps for canals	T
Caravans and trailers	S/T
Civil helicopters	Ai/Ae/E
Diesel engines for locomotives	S
Gas turbine engines for ships	Ae
Helium airships for airfreight	Ai/Ae/E
Hydrofoils	Ai/S/T
Industrial trucks	S/T
Integrated engine battery cars	E
Locomotives	S
Monorail development	Ai/E
Mopeds and motorcycles	T
Pipe-laying and freight barges	S/T
Remotely piloted vehicles for (eg) crop-spraying	Ai/Ae/E
Retarder braking systems for trains and coaches	E
Road-rail vehicles	Ai/E
Rolling stock	Ai/E/T
Short-to-medium range civil freight and passenger aircraft	Ai/Ae/E
Other braking systems for all kinds of vehicles	E
Others	
Brewing equipment	T
Cable-laying equipment	S
Conveyors	S
Electronic libraries and teaching aids	E
Elevators	S
Firefighting equipment	T
Heavy earth-moving equipment	T
High-speed motors	E
Linear motors operating pumps and compressors	E
Micro-processors	E
Mining machinery and equipment	S
Reconstruction of piers	S
Telecheiric devices for application in dangerous environments	E
Applications of gas turbine engines	Ae

Sources: Kaldor (1977); Labour Party Defence Study Group (1977); Lucas Aerospace Combine Shop Stewards Committee (1976); Smith, D (1977a, 1977b); Vickers National Combine Committee of Shop Stewards (1978).

The problems of economic conversion are significant but surmountable and the potential gains make the effort eminently worthwhile.

Dan Smith; Ron Smith, *Military Expenditure, Resources and Development*, A report to the U.N. study on the relationship between disarmament and development; Birkbeck College, University of London (1980). Unpublished.

THE UNITED NATIONS SYSTEM


IAEE—International Atomic Energy Agency
UNRWA—United Nations Relief and Works Agency
FAO—Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
IMCO—Inter-Governmental Maritime Consultative Organization
IBRD—International Bank for Reconstruction and Development
ICAO—International Civil Aviation Organization
IDA—International Development Association
IFAD—International Fund for Agricultural Development
IFC—International Finance Corporation
ILO—International Labor Organization
IMF—International Monetary Fund
ITU—International Telecommunication Union
UNESCO——United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UPU—Universal Postal Union
WHO—World Health Organization
WIPO—World Intellectual Property Organization
WMO—World Meteorological Organization
GATT—General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade
SECURITY COUNCIL
SECRETARIAT
Committees
Subsidiary Organs
GENERAL ASSEMBLY
INTERNATIONAL COURT OF JUSTICE
TRUSTEESHIP COUNCIL
ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COUNCIL
Commissions
Committees
UNDOF—United Nations Disengagement Observer Force
UNEF—United Nations Emergency Force
UNFICYP—United Nations Peacekeeping Force in Cyprus
UNIFIL—United Nations Interim Force in Lebanon
UNMOGIP—United Nations Military Observer Group in India and Pakistan
UNTSO—United Nations Truce Supervision Organization in Palestine
UNCTAD—United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
UNDP—United Nations Development Program
UNDRO—United Nations Disaster Relief Office
UNEP—United Nations Environment Program
UNFDAC—United Nations Fund for Drug Abuse Control
UNFPA—United Nations Fund for Population Activities
UNHCR—United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF—United Nations Children's Fund
UNIDO—United Nations Industrial Development Organization
UNITAR—United Nations Institute for Training and Research
UNU—United Nations University
WFC—World Food Council
WFP—World Food Program (UN/FAO)

"The United Nations System," *Editor's Guide to the United Nations*,
The United Nations Association of the United States of America, New York (1978) p. 3

Financing the UN System

UN Regular Budget:
Member state contributions—assessed and voluntary—for UN-related programs and activities totaled about $2.4 billion in 1977. Of these funds, almost 90 percent were spent on economic, social, cultural and humanitarian activities.

The UN's regular budget covers all day-to-day expenses for its principal and subsidiary organs. Each budget covers a two-year period. It is prepared by the secretariat and reviewed by the 16-member Advisory Committee on Administrative and Budgetary Questions (ACABQ), elected by the General Assembly. The members serve in an individual and expert capacity. Both the proposed budget and the Advisory Committee's report are then submitted to the General Assembly's Fifth (Administrative and Budgetary) Committee, which revises the estimate and then presents the final version to the GA for approval.

The regular budget for the 1978-1979 biennium stands at $1,090.1 million: $530.6 million for 1978 and $559.5 million for 1979. The two-year budget is likely to be revised in 1979 to account for inflation and loss on exchange as well as additional program expenses.

The budget is met by assessments on member states. The assessment formula is a complex one, based largely on national income levels, as determined over a 7-year base period. No nation, no matter how wealthy, is charged more than 25 percent of the UN regular budget, and no member, no matter how poor, can pay less than 0.01 percent. (The United States is the only member currently at the maximum assessment level; 67 nations are at the minimum.) The scale of assessments is revised every three years.

Specialized Agencies:
Each of the specialized agencies has its own budget, met by its own assessments on members. These assessments are distinct from assessments for the UN regular budget. Some specialized agencies also operate voluntary programs.

The specialized agencies engaged primarily in lending and monetary activities—the World Bank, IDA, IFAD, IFC and IMF—are financed not by assessments but rather by revenues on their operations. The capital of each agency is obtained through subscriptions from member countries.

Voluntary Programs:
As their generic name indicates, the voluntary programs are financed from voluntary contributions pledged by governments rather than from the UN's regular budget or from automatic assessments. Voluntary contributions also fund many of the program activities of the General Assembly's subsidiary organs.

Peacekeeping Operations:
Although six peacekeeping forces are in existence, only four deploy troops in numbers requiring significant funding. The UN Emergency Force (UNEF), the UN Disengagement Observer Force (UNDOF), the United Nations Interim Force in Lebanon (UNIFIL) and the UN Peacekeeping Force in Cyprus (UNFICYP), if continued, have an aggregate budget of $245 million for 1979. UNEF, UNDOF and UNIFIL are funded by special assessments on member states, with the UN assessment formula applied. UNFICYP's budget is met through voluntary contributions.

Editor's Guide to the United Nations, The United Nations Association of the United States of America, New York (update 1979) p. 5.

Scale of Assessment for the Apportionment of the Expenses of the United Nations

The scale of assessment for the contributions of Member States to the United Nations budget for the financial years 1980, 1981 and 1982 shall be as follows:

Member State	%
Afganistan	0.01
Albania	0.01
Algeria	0.12
Angola	0.01
Argentina	0.78
Australia	1.83
Austria	0.71
Bahamas	0.01
Bahrain	0.01
Bangladesh	0.04
Barbados	0.01
Belgium	1.22
Benin	0.01
Bhutan	0.01
Bolivia	0.01
Botswana	0.01
Brazil	1.27
Bulgaria	0.16
Burma	0.01
Burundi	0.01
Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic	0.39
Canada	3.28
Cape Verde	0.01
Central African Republic	0.01
Chad	0.01
Chile	0.07
China	1.62
Colombia	0.11
Comoros	0.01
Congo	0.01
Costa Rica	0.02
Cuba	0.11
Cyprus	0.01
Czechoslovakia	0.83
Democratic Kampuchea	0.01
Democratic Yemen	0.01
Denmark	0.74
Djibouti	0.01
Dominica	0.01
Dominican Republic	0.03
Ecuador	0.02
Egypt	0.07
El Salvador	0.01
Equatorial Guinea	0.01
Ethiopia	0.01
Fiji	0.01
Finland	0.48
France	6.26
Gabon	0.02
Gambia	0.01
German Democratic Republic	1.39
Germany, Federal Republic of	8.31
Ghana	0.03
Greece	0.35
Grenada	0.01
Guatemala	0.02
Guinea	0.01
Guinea-Bissau	0.01
Guyana	0.01
Haiti	0.01
Honduras	0.01
Hungary	0.33
Iceland	0.03
India	0.60
Indonesia	0.16
Iran	0.65
Iraq	0.12
Ireland	0.16
Israel	0.25
Italy	3.45
Ivory Coast	0.03
Jamaica	0.02
Japan	9.58
Jordan	0.01
Kenya	0.01
Kuwait	0.20
Lao People's Democratic Republic	0.01
Lebanon	0.03
Lesotho	0.01
Liberia	0.01
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	0.23
Luxembourg	0.05
Madagascar	0.01
Malawi	0.01
Malaysia	0.09
Maldives	0.01
Mali	0.01
Malta	0.01
Mauritania	0.01
Mauritius	0.01
Mexico	0.76
Mongolia	0.01
Morocco	0.05
Mozambique	0.01
Nepal	0.01
Netherlands	1.63
New Zealand	0.27
Nicaragua	0.01
Niger	0.01
Nigeria	0.16
Norway	0.50

Regional Population Figures

Oman	0.01
Pakistan	0.07
Panama	0.02
Papua New Guinea	0.01
Paraguay	0.01
Peru	0.06
Philippines	0.10
Poland	1.24
Portugal	0.19
Qatar	0.03
Romania	0.21
Rwanda	0.01
Samoa	0.01
Sao Tome and Principe	0.01
Saudi Arabia	0.58
Senegal	0.01
Seychelles	0.01
Sierra Leone	0.01
Singapore	0.08
Solomon Islands	0.01
Somalia	0.42
South Africa	1.70
Spain	0.02
Sri Lanka	0.01
Sudan	0.01
Suriname	0.01
Swaziland	0.01
Sweden	1.31
Syrian Arab Republic	0.03
Thailand	0.10
Togo	0.01
Trinidad and Tobago	0.03
Tunisia	0.03
Turkey	0.03
Uganda	0.01
Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic	1.46
Union of Soviet Socialist Republics	11.10
United Arab Emirates	0.10
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland	4.46
United Republic of Cameroon	0.01
United Republic of Tanzania	0.01
United States of America	25.00
Upper Volta	0.01
Uruguay	0.04
Venezuela	0.50
Viet Nam	0.03
Yemen	0.01
Yugoslavia	0.42
Zaire	0.02
Zambia	0.02
	100.00

Middle and Southeast Asia

(Population + 000,000)	
Afghanistan	18.3
Bangladesh	87.1
Bhutan	1.3
Brunai	0.2
Burma	32.9
East Timor	0.7
Tunisia	6.4
India	660.9
Indonesia	140.9
Iran	36.3
Kampuchea	8.9
Laos	3.7
Malaysia	13.3
Maldives	0.1
Nepal	13.7
Pakistan	79.9
Philippines	46.2
Singapore	2.4
Sri Lanka	14.5
Thailand	46.2
VietNam	50.1
	1257.6

East Asia/Oceania

(Population + 000,000)	
Australia	14.4
China	950.0
Fiji	0.6
Hong Kong	4.7
Japan	115.9
Korea (D.R.)	17.5
Korea (R)	37.6
Macao	0.3
Mongolia	1.6
New Zealand	3.2
Papua New Guinea	3.1
Samoa, Western	0.2
Solomon Islands	0.2
Taiwan	17.3
	1166.6

North America

(Population + 000,000)	
Canada	23.7
Mexico	67.7
United States	220.3
	311.7

Latin America and Caribbean

(Population + 000,000)	
Argentina	26.7
Bahamas	0.2
Barbados	0.3
Bolivia	5.2
Brazil	118.7
Chile	11.0
Colombia	26.1
Costa Rica	2.2
Cuba	9.9
Dominica	9.1
Dominican Rep.	5.3
Ecuador	8.0
El Salvador	4.5
Grenada	0.1
Guadeloupe	0.3
Guatemala	6.8
Guyana	0.8
Haiti	5.7
Honduras	3.1
Jamaica	2.2
Martinique	0.3
Netherland Antilles	0.3
Nicaragua	2.5
Panama	1.9
Paraguay	3.0
Peru	17.3
Puerto Rico	3.5
Suriname	0.4
Trinidad/Tobago	1.1
Uruguay	2.9
Venezuela	13.5
	283.9

Socialist Europe

(Population + 000,000)	
Albania	2.6
Bulgaria	8.9
Czechoslovakia	15.2
Germany (D.R.)	16.7
Hungary	10.7
Poland	35.4
Romania	22.1
U.S.S.R.	264.0
Yugoslavia	22.2
	397.8

Sub Sahara Africa

(Population + 000,000)	
Angola	6.9
Benin	3.5
Botswana	0.7
Burundi	4.4
Cameroon	8.3
Cape Verde	0.3
Central African Rep.	2.4
Chad	4.4
Comoros	0.4
Congo	1.5
Djibouti	0.1
Equatorial Guinea	0.3
Ethiopia	31.8
Gabon	0.5
Gambia	0.6
Ghana	11.3
Guinea	4.9
Guinea-Bissau	0.6
Ivory Coast	7.7
Kenya	15.4
Lesotho	1.3
Liberia	1.8
Madagascar	8.5
Malawi	5.9
Mali	6.5
Mauritania	1.6
Mauritius	0.9
Mozambique	10.2
Namibia	1.0
Niger	5.1
Nigeria	74.6
Reunion	0.5
Rwanda	4.9
Sao Tome/Principe	0.1
Senegal	5.5
Seychelles	0.1
Sierra Leone	3.7
Somalia	3.5
South Africa	28.2
Swaziland	0.5
Tanzania	17.0
Togo	2.5
Uganda	13.2
Upper Volta	6.7
Zaire	28.0
Zambia	5.6
Zimbabwe	7.2
	350.6

North Africa and Southwest Asia

(Population + 000,000)	
Algeria	19.1
Bahrain	0.3
Cyprus	0.6
Egypt	40.6
Gaza	0.4
Iraq	12.9
Israel	3.8
Jordan	3.0
Kuwait	1.3
Lebanon	3.1
Libya	2.8
Morocco	19.4
Oman	0.9
Qatar	0.2
Saudi Arabia	8.1
Sudan	17.9
Syria	8.4
Turkey	44.3
United Arab Emirates	0.9
Yemen	5.8
Yemen, Demo.	1.9
	202.1

Western Europe

(Population + 000,000)	
Austria	7.5
Belgium	9.8
Denmark	5.1
Finland	4.8
France	53.4
Germany (F.R.)	61.2
Greece	9.5
Iceland	0.2
Ireland	3.3
Italy	56.9
Luxembourg	0.4
Malta	0.3
Netherlands	14.0
Norway	4.1
Portugal	10.0
Spain	37.6
Sweden	8.3
Switzerland	6.3
United Kingdom	55.8
	348.5

"1979 World Population Data Sheet" (excerpts)

Population Reference Bureau Inc., Washington, D.C.

A Sample Conflict Resolution Activity: Skits

In this activity a conflict is chosen which is relevant to the class or group. For instance, a younger sister takes a book from an older sister; they fight over it, and the mother comes running into the room. What should she do?

The conflict is dramatized by volunteers from the group. Stopping the conflict skit before it is resolved often leads to the children suggesting many types of solutions. This is less likely if a solution is presented along with the skit.

After the skit is presented, the group breaks into small groups to discuss the conflict and some possible solutions. One person in each group might act as facilitator to ask the following questions:

1. What was the conflict?
2. What is one solution you can think of to that conflict?
3. Which of these solutions should we try to act out as a group?
4. Which role would you like to play in that solution?

When the group has decided on the solution and the players, they make the solution into a skit, and rehearse it. When all the small groups are ready, they return to the large group to put on the skits. After all of the skits have been presented, the facilitator summarizes the solutions and asks for discussion of them. With some groups, it is desirable to ask how the participants were feeling during the skit.

Skits can also be presented to groups just for the purpose of discussing solutions, although acting them out is fun for all ages, including teachers.

Priscilla Prutzman. "*A Sample Conflict Resolution Activity*" Children's Creative Response to Conflict Program. Nyack, New York (1980) Unpublished.

Non-formal Education in Rural Latin America

For this educational programme for the promotion of peace, we have chosen adults, particularly illiterate adults, as our prime, though not exclusive, target for work and reflection. Adults have been the object of much investigation. In the field of education, however, human and economic resources, publications and methodological work have been concentrated here on the school, which implies serious and sometimes insurmountable limitations on effective work to achieve peace based on individual and social rights. We are trying to work with illiterate adults outside the school system. In Latin America this type of education is gaining momentum and has important possibilities.

We are not interested in teaching how to read and write. What we are interested in teaching is another kind of reading and writing: of one's personal existence. This implies learning to think, to analyse, to see the causes and effects of things, to understand oneself and others and to act consciously and responsibly.

Methodology of the image. On the basis of a drawing which shows typical situations, a dialogue is begun about the experience of the group itself, which is to be analysed critically with all its problems, reasons and possible solutions.

Those who don't know how to read and write (as well as those who do) learn how to 'read' the image, which is the same as reading existence, reading history, to understand and assimilate it while changing it. We have observed that the illiterate do not talk about ideas, but about concrete things. The image is an excellent instrument for starting a dialogue and is a base for a fruitful methodological process.

The drawing is first *observed* in silence; then *described* with all its details, and then *analysed* with regard to the relation of its elements and the reality described. For, in the final analysis, what will be discussed is the reality presented by the drawing. The group can identify with that reality or not. But in any case, through identification, differentiation, or even opposition, the image can be the instrument to identify the group's own situation.

We believe that every man has values, often hidden or unknown, which he must discover and use along with everyone else. Although he may seem to 'know' less, we can learn from him. The group thus starts a mutual discovery process which keeps on growing.

By means of dialogue, the group not only reads the image or the situation expressed by it, but also compares it with its own experience, and re-expresses it with the details that form this experience here and now.

It is essential to take the step that is possible at the moment. Then tomorrow one can progress to the next step, to more important and difficult action.

This type of education requires moderators of adult groups who have qualities of easy dialogue and some initial training which makes them able to use the instrument for education. A moderator should be flexible, sensitive to new situations, open to unforeseen events, desirous to go through the experience with the group, willing to question themselves, sympathetic and constantly progressing.

If the group moderator imposes his will on the group and the group is not ready for it, frustration and failure can result. In other words, the group is not able to take this step yet. It is essential to take the step that is possible at the moment. Then tomorrow one can progress to the next step, to more important and difficult action.

In summary, we can say that we are proposing a methodology for adults: dialogue in groups, based on a drawing seen by everyone, described and analysed, to stimulate awareness of their own family and social realities, with their problems, the reasons for them, and the possibilities of change, so that the participants compromise themselves to acting individually and in a group, to improve their life through their own effort.

P. Jaime de J. Diaz C., Director; CODECAL; Bogata, Columbia. S.A.

Cooperation and Conflict Simulation

I utilize this simulation in my Business Administration 371–Human Relations course. After giving a number of lectures on the benefits of cooperation within and between organizations, I administer this simulation. Unfortunately, although the pay-off matrix is designed to encourage cooperation, the groups inevitably compete. I believe we must encourage and instill inter and intra group cooperation at as early an age as possible. —J. Ronald Collins, Ph.D.

—INSTRUCTIONS

You and your team are going to engage in a disarmament exercise in which you can win or lose money. In this exercise your objective, as a team, is to win as much money as you can. The other team has received identical instructions.

—THE EXERCISE—

1. Each team will be given 20 cards or "weapons." Each card will be marked on one side with an "x" to designate "armed" condition. The blank side of the card signifies that the "weapon" is "unarmed". To begin the exercise each of the two teams will place 10 "weapons" in an "armed" condition and 10 in an unarmed condition. During the course of an exercise, these cards will remain in your possession and out of the sight of the other team.

2. Each "set" consists of no more than five moves for each team. Each move may consist of changing two, one, or none of the "weapons" from "armed" to "unarmed" status or vice versa.

Each team has two minutes to make a move and thirty seconds between moves. At the end of two minutes, you must have decided to turn two, one, or none of the weapons from "armed" to "unarmed" or from "unarmed" to "armed" status. If you fail to decide on a move in the allotted time, none will be turned.

3. There will be two or more sets depending on the time. Money tallies will be calculated after each set.

—THE POINTS AND SCORING—

1. Teams will have an equal number of players. Each player will contribute 25¢ to World Bank and 25¢ to his team's treasury each round.

2. "Attack"

a. Each team may anounce an attack on the other team during the thirty seconds following any two minute decision period (including the last one). The Choice of each team made during the previous decision period counts as a move. You may not "attack" during "negotiations" (see below).

b. If there is an "attack," the set ends. The team with the greater number of "armed" weapons will win 2¢ (per member) for each "armed weapon" they have over and above the number of "armed weapons" of the other team. This money will be paid directly from the treasury of the losing group to the treasury of the winning team.

c. The money will be paid before the next set begins.

2. If there is no "attack"

a. At the end of each set, your team's treasury will receive from the "World Bank" 2¢ per member for each "unarmed weapon" and your treasury will pay to the "World Bank" 2¢ per man for each "armed weapon".

b. If both teams win money, they will be awarded by the "World Bank". if both teams lose money, they will be awarded to the "World Bank".

c. Money will be exchanged immediately following close of set.

—NEGOTIATIONS—

1. Between moves you will have the opportunity to communicate with the other team through negotiators.

2. You may call for negotiations during the 30 seconds between any decision period. The other team may accept or reject your initiation. Negotiations can last no longer than 2 minutes.

3. When the negotiators return to their teams, the two minute decision time will start again.

4. Negotiators may say whatever is necessary to most benefit their team.

5. The team is not bound to agreements made by their negotiators, even when made in good faith.

6. Your negotiators MUST meet with those of the other team after the second and fourth move.

—SPECIAL ROLES—

You will have 10 minutes to discuss and plan your team strategy. During this time before the exercise begins, you must select persons to fill the following roles. The persons can be changed at any time by a majority of the group.

1. Two negotiators—activities stated above.

2. A group spokesman—to communicate group decisions to referees regarding initiation and acceptance of negotiations, moves in game, attacks, etc.

a. You MUST elect a spokesman.

b. The referees will listen only to the spokesman.

c. Spokesmen cannot be negotiators.

d. Spokesmen will make money transactions with bankers.

3. One recorder—to record moves of team.

—SOME REMINDERS—

1. At each move you may turn over two, one, or zero of your "armed" weapons to the "unarmed" side—or your unarmed weapons to the "armed" side.

2. You have 2 minutes to decide which of the above you will do.

3. If there is no "attack" at the end of the set you will receive 2¢ for each "unarmed weapon" and lose 2¢ for each "armed" weapon.

4. If there is an "attack" the team with the greater number of "armed weapons" wins 2¢ for each "armed weapon" they have over the number that the other team has.

5. You should immediately elect two negotiators, a team spokesman and a recorder.

6. If you want, you may call for "negotiations" after each move. Mandatory meetings of negotiations will occur after move number two and move number four.

7. The negotiators will meet to do whatever you and they think will benefit your group the most.

Originally designed by Norman Berkowitz and Harvey Hornstein

Telling Peace Stories

From Laura Simms, Storyteller...

It seems to me that storytelling can be one way of educating, didactically and experientially about peace and how to make it a reality as a birth right. Our basic disarmament tool is a "free" imagination which allows us to ask "why" and create alternative solutions to the simplest and most complex problems. If our imaginations are blocked and devalued, we can not even hear the words of peace as anything but words.

Some suggested stories:

Potatoes, Potatoes, about an Irish family whose two sons go to war on opposite sides and how the whole country is destroyed.

Kalagiri, a jataka tale from Ceylon where the mighty King's army and wild elephant cannot defeat the Buddha. The Buddha tames both army and elephant through the gentle sound of his voice and the truth of birth and death.

Superman, three supermen vie for supremacy. No one wins. One thinks he's strongest because he eats 3 elephants a day, the second eats five elephants, the third seven elephants.

The Dragon and His Grandmother, from Grimm's about two soldiers who decide to leave a war and having the courage to see the foolishness of war, also have the wits to trick an oppressive (strong but stupid) dragon.

The Black Prince, Egyptian folktale about a boy who gives up his simple life to become a soldier and loses everything he loved and causes the destruction of his own village.

Synopsis of a Pygmy story from Africa

Long ago there was a bird with rainbow wings. His song brought the rain. The story of this bird was told in a certain village. As the villagers grew wealthy, they forgot about the bird. They left food for the bird, but no one remembered why. After a time, the food was no longer left. It came to pass that there was a drought in the village. The people worked on the land. The people searched for food. But the land yielded nothing. The people were hungry. They turned their backs on one another.

A boy went for a walk in the forest. He heard a soft song. He saw a beautiful bird in the trees. He ran back to his father. "Give me some food. There is a beautiful bird in the forest that can not sing because it is hungry." The father at first refused, but the boy insisted until the father gave him a crust of bread to keep him silent. The boy fed the bird. The bird spread its rainbow wings and began to sing. That night there was a soft rain.

The boy returned to the forest the next day. Again he saw the bird. When the bird saw the boy it spread its wings and sang. The boy again returned to the village and begged his father for food. "We are too poor," said the man. Again he gave the boy a crust of bread to silence him. Again the bird sang for the boy with a voice more beautiful than he had ever heard. That night there was a good rain. Again the boy returned to the forest. Again he begged his father for food. Now that there was rain, the father refused to give the boy food for the bird. "We must feed ourselves." He wanted to quiet his son. So the father followed the boy to the forest. He saw the bird. The boy fed the bird. The father shot the bird. The bird fell to the ground. The boy fell to the ground. The father fell to the ground. Everyone in the village fell to the ground.

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